TRENDS IN EDUCATION

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3 Autumn Issue

In-Service Training

Curriculum: An HMI View

Department of Education and Science

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Trends in Education

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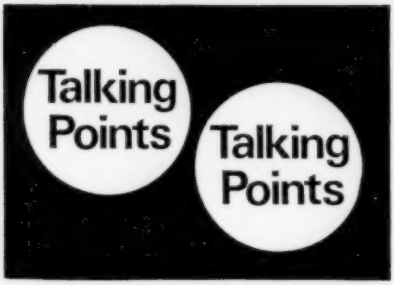

The politics of politics

When the Hansard Society's report on the political awareness of the school leaver was published last August,* the press – predictably enough – went to town. The reactions too were fairly predictable. Some newspapers and journals, notably the weeklies, which had the leisure to mull over the report, came up with a reasoned response, even if they were short on solutions; but too many ranged from the 'shock! horror!' of the popular press to the languid does-it - really - matter - since - politicians - are - so - awful - are - they - not world-weariness of the *Daily Telegraph*.

The truth is, of course, that it ought to be disturbing that, even after years of newspaper and television coverage of the troubles in Northern Ireland, 42 per cent of the sample thought that the IRA was a Protestant organization. Given that level of ignorance, it is hardly surprising that 34 per cent believed that Japan is ruled by a military junta.

This raises a question that the press, in particular the popular press, ought to be asking.

Fifty-five per cent of the sample claimed that they read a daily newspaper every day and 64 per cent that they read a Sunday newspaper every Sunday. Forty-three per cent read the *Sun*, 47 per cent the *Daily Mirror*, 18 per cent the *Daily Express*, and 13 per cent the *Daily Mail;* of the Sundays, 41 per cent read the *News of the World*, 46 per cent the *Sunday Mirror*, 33 per cent the *Sunday People*, and 21 per cent the *Sunday Express*. If we assume the level of political ignorance the sample showed to be typical of school leavers throughout the country, and there is no reason to believe that it is not, this suggests that the popular press is failing to do one of the things it ought to be doing – that is, conveying information, including political information, to a mass readership.

The press may claim that its function in this matter has been usurped by television. But television by the nature of things is highly selective not only in what news it covers but in the way it covers it.

The Hansard Society's survey also shows that the kind of political education being taught in school at the moment makes very little difference to the level of political awareness of the pupils studying it. And, anyway, all the evidence we have indicates that this ignorance of politics is carried on into adult life. The evaluation study York University is now carrying out on Bernard Crick and Ian Lister's political education programme for schools should prove to be quite important.

Nevertheless, there has been a failure of the communications industry, and those newspapers which treated the survey lightly or used it merely as another stick to beat the schools with ought to accept a portion of the blame.

The fact that an electorate can vote in and out of office governments, doing so in consequence of a set of beliefs that may either be false or at least may rest on decidedly shaky foundations, ought to be disturbing to any society that calls itself democratic. Government of the people, by the people, for the people was not offered as a cynical definition. A good, sound political education in schools is one way of ensuring that it does not become so.

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* Stradling, Robert. *The Political Awareness of the School Leaver*. The Hansard Society, 1977.

In-Service Training

Starting to teach is a daunting business, like learning to swim: you can only learn how to do it by doing it; and the more you do it the more you discover how much is still to be learned.

Merely staying afloat is not enough for the teacher who has the futures of hundreds of young people on his conscience; and awareness that schools are not the only channel of education is no great consolation to the conscientious. Indeed, the more outward-looking the teacher is, the more aware he becomes of the need constantly to appraise his performance and sometimes to change his methods. In a schizophrenic way, while he stands in front of his class or group and teaches, his alter ego sits among the pupils, weighing what it is like at the receiving end.

However much the teacher may do for himself, by self-criticism, private study, and sharing ideas with his colleagues, he will from time to time have professional needs that cannot be satisfied by these means alone. This issue of *Trends* examines some of the means by which these needs can be met.

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In-service training: a national perspective

PAULINE PERRY

Staff Inspector with special responsibility for in-service training

A group of teachers attending a part-time in-service BEd course were talking recently about their experience. Their satisfaction with the course was expressed in terms of the relevance of their learning to the problems they faced in the classroom. One first-school teacher described her immense delight when she discovered that she had mastered the first year mathematics on the course sufficiently well to pass the examination. 'I had been on dozens of courses on how to teach infants mathematics,' she said, 'but none of them had dealt with my real problem which was to know and understand enough mathematics to have something to teach.' Another teacher told us how nervous she had always been of creative activity, especially movement, dance and drama. 'For the first time I feel confident enough to introduce these activities to my class,' she said, 'because I have done them, and enjoyed them, myself.'

The group's anxieties also centred on the schools from which they came. 'The rest of the staff are always polite about my getting a day off for this course,' one said, 'but I think they wonder what they are getting out of it.' Another said, 'I feel full of new ideas and insights, which go far beyond the reach of my own classroom. But I'm only one out of a staff of twelve – how can I influence the others, and find an opportunity to pass on what I have learned?'

Speaking of their motivation, most mentioned first their personal goal of obtaining a degree: all shared an anxiety about their ability to cope with the constant changes in curriculum and methods taking place: several said frankly that they had had only two years of initial training, and that this was simply no longer enough to sustain them professionally through the middle years of their career. These teacher-students were exemplifying in personal terms the national task which we face in in-service training today.

Period of stability

In education, as in other spheres of our national life, we have had a long period of change, expansion, innovation and mobility. Now, in a period of stability, consolidation and scarce resources, there are opportunities for planning in the long term, for an emphasis on quality rather than on quantity, and for attention to the slow and careful development of those resources we have.

The teaching force provides one of the more dramatic illustrations of the changed conditions. From a force with a high turnover and mobility, and a large input of newly trained entrants annually, it has become relatively static with an annual input in the future of possibly less than 5 per cent of its size. Most teachers are still in the first half of their career life, and so will be teaching for many years to come, often in the same school, and often without a major career change. The in-service training needs of this kind of force are very different from the needs of the teaching force in the '60s and early '70s, when mobility and career change were common. At the same time, the importance of in-service training for this next decade is evident. Change in the system, refreshment for the professional body, updating and strengthening of individual knowledge and professional skills, can now only be achieved by adequate and appropriate in-service provision, since both the input from initial training and career mobility are greatly reduced.

Appropriate and adequate provision is not, however, built on a deficiency model of training which reduces the further education of teachers to a 'filling in of holes' or a 'topping up'. What is needed is a dynamic model of professional development, in which the responsibility of every employer, every head of school or head of department, is to ensure that the teachers for whom they are responsible are performing at the very highest level of their capability. Not all teachers are, or ever will be, the best teachers anyone could wish; but all teachers should be given the environment, tools and training which would enable them to become the best teacher that they individually can be. To have such teachers is, at the very least, the right of every child.

A plan for in-service training which matches up to this model for further professional training is a challenge we face at a time when the country's economic difficulties have meant some cutback in resources for in-service training and in teacher release. This harsh fact should be set against three other realities. First, a very large pool of resources from the former colleges of education is now

becoming available. Secondly, the motivation of teachers to attend those courses they see as relevant and rewarding is undiminished by recent economies. The national cutback in full-time attendance on one-year and one-term courses has been more than compensated for by the take-up of long courses on a part-time basis, often in teachers' own time. Thirdly, there is a growing realization that in the past the use of resources for in-service training was not always well considered or effective. It is quite clear that, even without economic stringencies, there would have been a major shift in the emphasis and patterns of in-service training as the demand grew for a more relevant, effective and coordinated service to meet the professional needs of teachers.

Professional partnership

This new emphasis, usually described as school-focused in-service training, marks a sense of professional partnership between the teachers and the providers of training, as well as among teachers who work together in one school or department. The term school-focused does not describe one limited form of activity, but is a prescriptive philosophy for schools and providers alike. It is best defined as any activity which stems directly from the identified need in a school or a small group of schools, which is conducted with the full involvement of the group of teachers concerned, and which by its nature has immediate bearing on the life of the whole school or a whole section of the school.

This kind of provision cannot come into being unless there are effective mechanisms within schools for identifying and defining the needs both of individual teachers and of the system. The group of teachers whose remarks were quoted earlier were expressing the wish that their attendance as individuals on a course would be effectively woven into the professional life of the school, through proper feedback, staff discussion, and the use of the colleague attending a long course as a chosen and well-used resource for the entire staff.

Many schools are now actively developing the mechanisms and processes needed to ensure that the in-service training of their staff, whether as individuals or as a group, is school-focused in this way. In these schools, use is made of staff meetings, departmental meetings and one-day conferences for corporate self-assessment, the definition of goals and deficiencies and the initiation of remedies. Staff working parties may be set up to report back on areas of concern and recommend what devices are necessary, including the training of either key individuals or groups, or the use of outside consultants who may be advisers, tutors, or teachers from other schools.

Developments overseas

England is not alone in the movement towards this kind of school-focused development, of which the school-based element is always an important part. In Denmark, Canada and the Federal Republic of Germany, television and other multi-media materials for distance learning are being used for group enrolment on a course by the

majority or all of the staff of the school who follow the course together. In Denmark, these groups include parents and community representatives who can join in the discussion which follows after each programme. In Japan, schools have been widely encouraged to set up school-based small-scale research projects as an in-service device. In these, all members of staff work together on a problem which they have identified, guided by colleagues experienced in research methods. In the USA, some school districts have set up cooperative schemes with their local university, whereby the university registers a group of teachers in each school on a school-based study project for which each teacher involved receives credit.

Our understanding of the processes whereby the life of the school and the quality of teaching are affected, either by the internal growth of school policies or by the direct intervention of an external agency, is only beginning to emerge. It is becoming clear, however, that the value of long courses, short courses, the work of advisers, and the new provision of consultancy from college staff, depends to a large degree on the internal processes within a school by which the use made of these external agencies is related to an informed self-monitoring of standards, an intelligent and professional identification of needs, and a corporate determination to use new knowledge and understanding in ways which raise the level of classroom performance. Nationally, one of our most urgent tasks is to develop a language about teaching and learning behaviour in which this dialogue can be conducted effectively within our profession.

Trends 1977/3

Evaluating in-service programmes

PETER TAYLOR

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At a time when there is more and more discussion about accountability in education, it is inevitable that this should include a consideration of evaluating in-service programmes more systematically than before. However, even if we were to disregard the accountability argument, there are still good reasons for giving more thought to this task.

First, provision has greatly increased during recent years, but the quality of some of it has been doubtful. Clearly this ought to be rectified immediately. Secondly, despite the claims of the James Committee and others that teachers who have made use of in-service opportunities are more efficient, there is very little empirical evidence to support this claim, or indeed other claims that are made for in-service training (INSET). In other words, our support for it is based primarily on the belief that it is beneficial, and we need some 'hard' evidence to support this. Thirdly, during recent years, there has been considerable diversification in the types of programme available, and this, understandably, has generated such questions as whether they are more beneficial than what was available before. Fourthly, since many teachers give up much of their own time for in-service education, we must ensure that this is not wasted. Finally, as resources for INSET become scarce during the next few years, there will be an urgent need for us to provide the sort of information that will help determine priorities – for example, what types of programme are better organized on a part-time and what on a full-time basis, and so on. More attention to evaluation should assist us in providing answers to some of these questions.

Evaluation is not new

The evaluation of in-service programmes is, of course, not new; it has been taking place for years, primarily through private, informal, and intuitive means, and recently, through the increasing use of questionnaires given to teacher participants. However, the extent of even this kind of evaluation has been limited: we now need more accurate and valid information.

The findings of a review recently carried out for the DES* are particularly encouraging as they indicate that many people involved with INSET accept the need for more systematic evaluation studies. Other encouraging developments are the Society for Research into Higher Education's recent seminar on the evaluation of new BEd degrees, the launching of *Evaluation Newsletter* by the Committee for Research into Teacher Education, a conference entitled 'The Evaluation of In-Service Courses and Conferences' held at Cambridge last March, and the fact that the next edition of the new teachers' centre journal *Insight* is to take evaluation as its central theme.

As many people will be quick to point out, however, evaluating in-service programmes can present major problems, and we should not underestimate them, nor let them deter us – at least not until we have tried to overcome them. There are, for example, few precedents to guide us because INSET has no tradition of systematic evaluation. There are major difficulties in assessing the impact of a programme on teachers and their classroom work. Evaluation is seen as threatening by some. Styles and strategies of evaluation are

* A review of in-service evaluation practices in the United Kingdom was undertaken by the author.

increasing in number and they must be bewildering to those who are unfamiliar with them. Lastly, and, perhaps more important, we are unlikely to receive additional resources to assist us in our task.

Purpose of evaluation

Although educational programmes can be evaluated in different ways and from different points of view, there does, at least, seem to be some agreement about the general purpose of educational evaluation as advocated by Stufflebeam. 'Educational evaluation is a process of delineating, obtaining and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives.'* Thus, for the purposes of INSET, this embraces such decisions as whether to continue, modify, or replace a programme, whether to continue with, or replace a tutor or team leader or chairman, or whether to include greater teacher participation.

In their analysis of the steps to be taken in the process of evaluation, Alexander and Sayler† include the following:

1. the determination of what is to be provided; for what kinds of decisions is evaluative data needed;
2. the kinds of data needed in making these decisions;
3. the collection of data;
4. defining criteria for determining the quality of the matter being evaluated;
5. analysis of the data in terms of these criteria;
6. providing information for decision-makers.

Equally helpful is the comment by McIntosh‡ that a prerequisite of educational programmes should be their evaluation at different levels. The following are distinguished as a minimum:

1. evaluation of the need or demand of the programme;
2. a. evaluation of the effectiveness of the programme in the opinion of the student;
   b. evaluation of the effectiveness of the programme in the opinion of the educator providing the programme;
   c. evaluation of the effectiveness of the programme in the opinion of the buyer, user, or employer of the newly trained product;
   d. evaluation of the effectiveness of the programme in the opinion of outside educationalists.

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* See Jenkins, D. *Curriculum Design and Development*. The Open University Press, 1976. Units, 19, 20, 21.

† Alexander, W. M. and Sayler, J. G. *Planning the Curriculum for Schools*. Holt, Reinehart and Winston, 1974.

‡ McIntosh, N. 'Some problems involved in the evaluation of multi-media educational systems'. *British Journal of Educational Technology*. No. 3. Volume 5, 1974.

3. evaluation of individual units or blocks of work of the programme – for example, one day or one week's work.

Because of the volume of in-service programmes, their diversity, and the various resource problems, few programmes are likely to undergo such a vigorous evaluation process; however, evaluation at one or more of these levels would often be a considerable improvement on what has gone before.

The problem

Perhaps it is because INSET has no tradition of systematic evaluation that some of the few promising evaluation studies have sought guidance, rightly in my view, from the curriculum evaluation movement. For example, the 'objectives model' and the 'illuminative model' have been helpful, the former in attempting to evaluate programmes of limited length and aims, and the latter in evaluating innovative, award-bearing programmes where a closer in-depth study is required. A variety of data-collecting instruments associated with the curriculum evaluation movement have also been used.*

Developments such as these, and the lack of suitable studies for guidance purposes, lead me to the belief that some well-designed theoretical evaluation models would be beneficial to the evaluators of INSET programmes.

Henderson,† in one of the few in-depth INSET evaluation studies undertaken in the United Kingdom, has identified four distinct areas of change which may take place in a teacher as a result of exposure to INSET. These are changes in knowledge, skills, attitudes, and internalized feelings, motives, and aspirations. However, as he then demonstrates, and as others have demonstrated before him, there are major difficulties in trying to assess the extent of some of these changes, particularly in skills and attitudes, although in the latter case, attitude scales are available and these can be of limited assistance. In terms of skills and classroom performance, however, the greatest developments have been in the areas of microteaching and associated techniques, and of interaction analysis. Further work in these fields would seem to be necessary if we are ever going to be able to deal satisfactorily with this difficulty.

Some people see evaluation as threatening and are reluctant to participate for fear that judgements will be passed on them. However, with diplomacy and perseverance, it might be possible to demonstrate to them that evaluation can be supportive and not threatening, and that it can contribute to their own academic and intellectual development.

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* For those who are not familiar with them, a useful summary of these instruments is contained in Tawney, David. (Ed.) *Curriculum Evaluation Today: Trends and Implications*. Macmillan. 1976.

† Henderson, E. *Some Personal and School Outcomes of In-Service Training*. Unpublished PhD thesis, University of Reading, 1975.

The lack of additional resources probably means that any significant increase in the evaluation of INSET programmes will have to be undertaken by providing agencies themselves – that is, by colleges, polytechnics, universities, teachers' centres, LEAs and schools – if necessary, in my view, at the expense of producing yet more programmes.

As Alexander* has pointed out, however, there are strengths and weaknesses in such home-spun evaluation. The major strength is that it will involve tutors, programme organizers and others in the evaluation process. This is what extended professionalism is all about. Its weaknesses tend to fall into two categories, political and methodological. On the one hand, there are questions of control, manipulation, participation and credibility, and on the other, issues such as the individual's competence to undertake what can be a complex operation requiring specialist skills, judgement, and a degree of detachment.

A small number of self-evaluation attempts are in fact beginning to emerge, some of which are quite promising. For example, a few higher education institutions, especially those which are introducing new programmes, have set up small evaluation teams or evaluation units, or have appointed part-time evaluators out of existing resources, sometimes with the valuable support of evaluation committees. A few other institutions have set up monitoring units, which provide ready-made questionnaires, processing machinery, and other evaluation facilities which individual tutors or course teams can call upon if they wish. A small number of projects, notably the Leeds University School of Education/NFER 'Colleges Curriculum Project', which is primarily concerned with initial training, and the Ford Teaching Project,† have attempted to devise self-monitoring procedures and instruments which could be used in evaluating INSET programmes.

Clearly, however, if there is to be any large-scale increase in this form of evaluation, help must be given to, for example, those teachers' centres, LEAs, and schools which have little evaluation expertise. This might be done through the production of simple and straightforward evaluation instruments (perhaps in the form of evaluation packages) that could be used for formative and summative evaluation purposes, especially in the shorter activities. However, it would need a major project to develop these instruments. Ideally, they should be based on a common framework, and should use, within broad limits, common items, so that comparable area or regional data can be obtained. In addition, the mounting of introductory evaluation courses for teachers' centre wardens, in-service tutors, and LEA advisers by universities, colleges or polytechnics on a regional basis would be beneficial. These would supplement the instruments I have

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* Alexander, R. *Evaluation Newsletter* No. 1. Committee for Research in Teacher Education, 1976.

† One account of the Ford Teaching Project can be found in Unit 28 of The Open University course *Curriculum Design and Development*.

already mentioned. In my view, these courses should last about three weeks (or the equivalent time), should be monitored, and should contain a large workshop element, including how to compile questionnaires, conduct interviews and tape and analyse in-service meetings. Such steps might minimize some of the weaknesses that Alexander has, quite rightly, highlighted.

In addition to these measures, and my earlier suggestion for evaluation models, I feel that there is also a need for:

1. external funds to be made available by bodies such as the DES and the Social Science Research Council for large-scale evaluation studies of significant, new in-service approaches – for example, the school-based or school-focused approach;
2. the setting up fairly soon of conferences on a regional, national, and international basis, by bodies such as regional committees, the DES and OECD, which would stimulate the need for more evaluation, and examine some of the major difficulties that confront INSET evaluators, with a view to making appropriate recommendations to overcome them;
3. news of interesting evaluation studies to be made available to a wider audience, possibly through *Evaluation Newsletter* and other similar channels.

Clearly, however, any significant increase in the evaluation of INSET programmes will be largely exploratory and experimental, at least in the initial stages, and it is a task that will not be easy. However, in my view, it is a task that needs further consideration urgently.

In-service training and the needs of teachers?

JACK CHAMBERS

Teacher at the Regents Park Secondary School, Southampton, and executive member of the National Union of Teachers

The innocent-sounding question in the title conceals many difficult problems. For instance: 'Who says teachers need in-service training? And which teachers?' 'What about those who don't want to, or won't – but should – take part in in-service education and training (INSET)?' 'When should they go? – in their own time? If not – who's going to look after their pupils when they're out of school?' 'And, anyway, who's going to teach them when (and if) you get "them" there' – for (final 'big bang' question this) 'What do they know about it anyway – and just what are they going to be taught that's got anything to do with their work as teachers?'

There! That's enough provocation to start with – but if anyone wants to structure a residential INSET weekend using simulation activities on 'The problems of in-service education – an overview?', permission is granted to use these remarks as discussion 'triggers'.

But what sort of chart might be useful? This article first attempts to advance some broad considerations as to the possible origins of teacher-generated, teacher-focused in-service training and education; next, to suggest a new and radical approach to such training programmes and their subsequent evaluation; and, lastly, to offer a rationale which would help to determine priorities within that framework. It does not aim to outline or illustrate training programmes.

These considerations, although in no way complete, constitute a working hypothesis within which a number of the difficulties facing in-service educationalists might be tested. Because the hypothesis—which is, in fact, more of a postulate—can help to predict teachers' likely attitudes and stances, the determination of priorities for INSET can be more accurately assessed.

The needs of serving teachers

The postulate suggested is that 'all teachers are passing through a phase in their own professional development, irrespective of their length of time or status in the education service, which can be identified by their "vocational-self" constructs;* such constructs are

* The term 'construct' is used here in a particular sense to suggest an interpretation placed upon events and external realities by the user of the construct; such an interpretation need not be accurate, nor is it an abstract formed from events. Constructs are, simply, reference points used by individuals in an effort to make sense out of what is going on or is likely to go on.

evolved from their interpretations of themselves with regard to every aspect of their working lives'.

The term 'working lives' could be taken to include not only work-roles and relationships with pupils, colleagues, parents and others involved in the 'in-school' situations, but also the effects of a teacher's view of himself in his 'private', out-of-school situations.

In-service education and training, therefore, might be generally regarded as a process whereby the teacher is enabled to 'restore and/or maintain and/or develop or elaborate still further his "vocational-self" construct of "I am a teacher" '.

However, that is too general for our purpose here, for such a specific 'vocational-self' construct is subject to constant modification and change, to a greater or lesser degree, depending upon the extent to which other social influences and experiences affect the teacher's total system of 'self' constructs. A wider range of factors, therefore, will have to be considered when planning training programmes if one is to develop INSET programmes which take account of the 'total person' who is, vocationally, a 'teacher'.

Before going on to consider these programmes, it might be helpful to illustrate the problem by 'inventing' a couple of teachers. Let us suppose that, in the first case, he or she is a Scale II post-holder in a newly reorganized, 11–16 secondary comprehensive school and is teaching mainly lower school classes, having exercised an 'option' to transfer with the 'top juniors' into the secondary school. In addition, however, this teacher is a highly successful ballroom dancer, appearing frequently on the BBC's 'Come Dancing' programme. Thus, the postulate advanced above would suggest that this teacher's 'vocational-self' construct would be less significant in his or her total system of constructs than that arising from those self-perceptions which say, 'You are a very good ballroom dancer'. While it does not suggest, however, that the 'vocational-self' construct would, necessarily, be poor, indifferent or unconcerned and make for bad teaching, it does imply that the motivations to enhance and extend this 'vocational-self' construct (by, for instance, in-service education and training) would be constrained.

My second example is of a female 24-year-old history honours graduate from a sheltered religious home background. She has been plunged into a 'down-town' secondary comprehensive school to teach history and some religious education, mainly to third, fourth and fifth year mixed classes of 'hardies'. Her postgraduate certificate of education training has 'sprayed' her lightly with theoretical concepts from Piaget, Bruner and Vigotsky but that theoretical background, allied to her twelve weeks' teaching practice in an open-access sixth-form secondary college of self-selected pupils, has not been greatly relevant (or developmental) in enabling her to acquire the necessary 'coping skills' for the work she now has to face daily.

The postulate would lead one to suppose that her 'vocational-self' construct could be: 'I am a total and abysmal failure' and that this arose from a perceived rejection of everything she had to offer by

the pupils, reinforced by the all-too-apparent attitudes of her long-suffering colleagues whose patience was wearing thin at their failure to assist her in gaining class-control, and compounded still further by her spending the greater part of her private, out-of-school time alone in a two-room, self-contained flat. However, she has recently become engaged and, as a result, her range of communication skills has extended beyond a preoccupation with her own failures. She is now, therefore, better able to incorporate other people's needs, ideas and values—including those of the pupils—into her own 'system' and her teaching ability is improving slightly as a consequence. Because she is now less in need of rewarding feedback she is becoming less flexible and more authoritarian. From needing 'salvation' she could now be motivated to attend an INSET course by the need for 'reorientation' or, even, 'self-evaluation' if she is, by now, not too much at risk.

A 'taxonomy' of skills needed for/by teachers

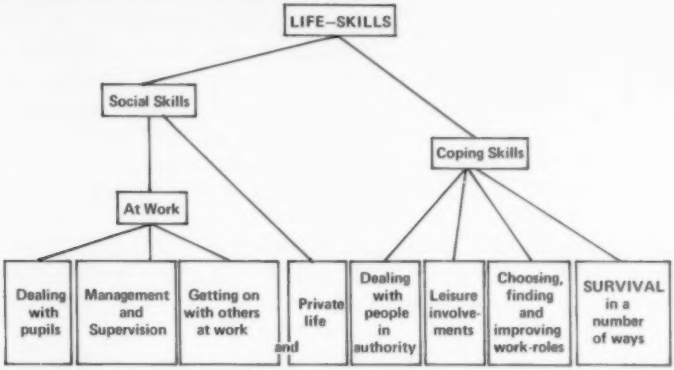
The above examples show that teachers, like all other working adults, have an interlocking range of total and 'life-skills' needs that are profoundly diverse. Further, their motives for participating in INSET programmes will reflect the extent to which they believe their 'life-skills' needs (and not just their work-role needs) can be, or are likely to be, met by that provision and those 'providers'.

A possible 'taxonomy' of such 'life skills' (Figure 1) relies heavily on work done by the Industrial Training Research Unit, but a global definition developed by the Canadian Newstart Programme suggests that: 'The term "life skills" refers to "problem-solving behaviour appropriately and responsibly used in the management of personal affairs". Its five focal areas of responsibility are self, family, leisure, community, and work'. These, however, are insufficiently precise for delineating those areas or contexts within which the adequacies or inadequacies of INSET programmes could be evaluated. The taxonomy set out below, therefore, more importantly, tries to suggest a structure for a 'continuing teacher-training framework' which would enable those with the responsibility for articulating and mounting in-service training programmes to recognize and judge what they are about in helping teachers to improve or enhance their repertoire of effective behaviours in their working life.

In the section on 'coping skills' (Figure 1), the problems of 'choosing, finding and improving work-roles' is so important that it needs additional illustration. One of the main difficulties which teachers, as professionals, have to overcome is that of inflexibility of the role-construct. One view is that teachers tend not to make the best youth club workers, perhaps because their work-roles suggest that 'talking' is more important than 'listening'.

This role-inflexibility could cause considerable difficulties for the teacher at the 'coping-skills' level where, for instance, a traditional

Figure 1. **A taxonomy of life-skills**



The 'taxonomy' in Figure 1 attempts to include all aspects of a teacher's training needs.

grammar school is reorganized along comprehensive lines; an infant teacher, after redeployment, has to teach maths and PE to 12-year-olds in a middle school; or a girls' school becomes co-educational. Yet how far do INSET programmes take account of such 'coping-skills' needs? Very rarely, I believe, since most approaches to INSET are 'knowledge-based' rather than 'performance-based' teacher education. The discussions that took place in anticipation of ROSLA illustrate this for, in the main, they identified, analysed and discussed 'problems'; only rarely were 'solutions' considered and, more rarely still, the practical implementation of these in the 'work situation'.

Of course, all this can be generally applied to the assessment of teachers' needs or 'place them' at whatever level of development they might be. It also shows the interlocking nature of the complex which would identify the components of a training programme to meet their 'life-skills' needs. However, it does not take us very far in deciding what type of learning a teacher might need to help him still further with his professional work.

The matrix put forward in Figure 2 incorporates the assumption that the training method best suited for the teaching of particular professional skills is dependent on the type of learning involved. These learning types are regarded as:

C – Comprehension
R – Reflex learning
A – Attitude development
M – Memorization
P – Procedural

Comprehension, in the context of life skills, means being able to make decisions and judge situations that involve the teacher with other

people. It calls for extensive skill in 'person' perception, that is 'reading' the other person's mood or intentions. In particular, it also means understanding the nature of the activity in which the teacher is engaged. Finally, it refers to the importance of understanding what effect the teacher is having on the other person and judging this from a positive, as well as a negative, standpoint (a bipolar view). This is the essence of 'communication skills,' for it means that the teacher must be able to judge whether what he is teaching and why he is teaching it is important to the other person.

The **Reflex** component refers to the whole range of interpersonal behaviours with which or by which social encounters are initiated, maintained and terminated.

Attitudes, while hard to define, is a term that embraces the teacher's general orientation to life with its associated expectations and motivations. It involves the desire to establish a rapport and convey sincerity and credibility as well as 'feelings' about other people in the broadest sense.

Memorization is the straightforward retention of knowledge and information. Allied to the 'communication' component referred to in 'comprehension', it means the capacity to analyse and synthesize what was significant and important to be communicated.

Procedural learning involves knowing what to do in a given situation without having consciously to re-learn it. This would incorporate learning new or additional methodologies associated with the particular teaching tasks carried out by the teacher. It would also mean that the teacher would be able to increase his technical expertise; enlarge his capacity for building teaching circuits and programmes; and be able to analyse their deficiencies and improve upon them.

Figure 2.

Types of learning	Dealing with pupils	Management and supervision	Getting on at work	Private life	Dealing with authority	Leisure	Work roles	Survival
Comprehension	**	***	*/**	*	*/*	**	**	**
Reflex	*/**	*/**	*/*	*	*	**	*	*
Attitudes	***	**	*	*	*	**	**	*
Memorization	*/*					*	*	*
Procedural	***		*			*	*	**
	SOCIAL SKILLS				COPING SKILLS			

The matrix (Figure 2) illustrates how this might apply to my two case-study teachers – but it would be interesting for readers to look at any INSET courses with which they are familiar and to consider how far they 'fitted-in' to the total professional training needs of the diverse group of people attending them, and how far the

'providers' of the courses were consciously (or subconsciously) aware of what those training needs might be, judged against the taxonomy of teachers' 'life-skills' needs outlined above.

The number of asterisks in each cell suggests the relative importance of the type of learning needed for a given category of life skills. The absence of an asterisk does not mean that the type of learning is not involved, simply that, as a general rule, it is probably not so significantly involved as it is in the other cases. Where a 'stroke' is added, it suggests that the levels of need for this type of learning could be greatly increased, for example in team-teaching.

The sample set of asterisks in Figure 2 is my subjective judgement about the generalized 'needs' that teachers have for different types of learning and training. The reader is, of course, at liberty to disagree. He might, for instance, think that a young male probationer in a 'cooperative', team-teaching situation with 12-year-old, middle school pupils, and colleagues who include a traditionally minded spinster close to retirement, a young divorcee looking for alternative support, and an embittered 45-year-old male department head who has been overlooked in the promotion race, would need a different set of asterisks. Also, his 'needs' might vary greatly during his weekly teaching programme, especially if it includes substantial proportions of PE, and art and crafts, because his 'reflex' and 'procedural' capabilities might need considerably strengthening, not only in the 'working situation' but also in his leisure.

Others, however, might consider that the 'memorization' aspects are very 'thin' if it were a deputy head (or even a headteacher) of an 11–18 comprehensive school for whom one was structuring a training/learning programme, and that 'survival' was inappropriate for someone so experienced in their career – unless they also took into account the length of service in the job; the sense of adequacy or inadequacy; and the levels of psychological 'threat' from the staff, the teachers' organizations, the local authority and the parents.

What my sample matrix does try to do, though, is to suggest a method of analysing the training needs of individual members (and groupings) of the teaching profession. It is my belief, also, that it highlights the major deficiencies in course planning and design, for it shows how long-term, coherent course structures are failing to meet the major, in-service training and educational needs of the profession. These courses concentrate on 'knowledge-bases' and talk endlessly about 'gaining an understanding of' – or even worse – 'attaining professional competence in' – but, in practice, they concentrate on 'memorization' through cognitive learning.

Teachers' motivation

I have already mentioned the need for INSET programmes which will reflect and respond to the teacher's 'life-skills' needs and motivate them to participate, at some level or other, in in-service training programmes. It is therefore assumed for the purpose of what

follows that the 'providers' will be able to achieve this, perhaps, through the rapid build-up of Masters' degree courses. These will engage, practically, in major pedagogic developments and will aim to eliminate the present empiricism which still substitutes for the by now urgently needed 'dialectic of theory into/from practice'.

The outstanding problems, therefore, would be: How could the teachers be stimulated to involve themselves in (and not just attend) INSET planning and design in the first instance? How can they translate their training programmes into practice in their work? How can they evaluate their own professional development and, subsequently modify, or add to, the training programmes in the light of those three tasks?

Teachers can be persuaded to involve themselves when they feel that their own 'personal curricula' will be enhanced by so doing. It is worth adding a word or two about the curriculum in this connexion.

The curriculum

Much of the discussion about the curriculum over the past two years has completely missed the point, for it has failed to recognize that what is taught is the teacher and not subjects. The focal point of any discussion about the curriculum, then, whether at this national, local or, even, school level must be the teacher. It follows, too, that not only the focus but, indeed, the whole rationale for any INSET articulation and planning must, again, reflect both the individual and collective curricular needs of real teachers in real schools.

Let us go back to my two invented teachers for a moment. How might one get them both to attend a week-end residential conference, during their half-term break?

Suppose the schools in which they work have staff development committees (and this is an essential prerequisite if any real progress is to be made beyond the 3–5 per cent 'take-up' of INSET by teachers in the direction of 'teacher-generated school-focused INSET'), which is considering the suggestion that there should be a course on 'Pastoral Care in Secondary Schools'. This title, with all its implications, is expressly aud emphatically rejected by the majority of the staff representatives on the grounds that: 'We're all (or should be) concerned with the welfare of our pupils'. They favour the alternative title: 'The School as a Caring Community: Practical Considerations'.

Our two teachers might look at the title and its supporting programme. To one teacher, the proposed discussion about 'Problems of discipline and control' offers help and guidance; to the other, the part of the programme referring to 'The role(s) of year and form tutors' suggests a change in job-style and responsibility perhaps, even, promotion. If someone on the staff development committee were to invite these two teachers to the course, and if this invitation were reinforced by the backing and involvement of senior management in the school, together with reassurances about comfort,

companionship, travelling expenses and the likely social recognition which would arise at the course and subsequently, not only would major motivational factors have been provided but they would be extremely difficult to evade.

The translation of the INSET programme into school practice is, virtually, the corollary of the above, since a staff development committee would immediately lose credibility if it played no part in the school's curriculum development. What would be the point of, or purpose in, suggesting courses, helping to plan, promote, and recruit for them, and then not implement any of their outcomes? None, of course, and one might well ponder on the wisdom of much talk about 'school-based, school-focused' INSET without the supporting evidence of school-located curriculum development.

The evaluation of the effectiveness of INSET programmes must rely upon the subsequent monitoring of the teacher's development, by himself and others, judged against the criteria being used to decide the aims and objectives of the programmes. At times, it is quite bewildering to see how a course will list a series of aims, followed by disjointed objectives which in no way develop those aims, followed, in turn, by a series of organizational suggestions and then – nothing! No proposals as to how the course director will know whether he, or his students, have realized those aims and, therefore, no means of knowing whether the course, as proposed, is well-conceived or not.

The development of such criteria will be profoundly important for the profession because it will be asking teachers and trainers to say to themselves and their colleagues what is 'good' and 'bad' professional practice. What is more, it will develop a substantial body of real educational theory arising from and tested in the practice of teaching. That is a major aspiration for all of us; it provides a genuine claim to true professionalism. No one should ever again be able to say 'It's all right in theory. But not in practice' – for it is never 'all right' in theory in that case.

What of future needs?

The implementation, or forward-planning, of teachers' INSET needs is based on certain assumptions. These assumptions, inevitably, rest upon present realities of material and human resources with all their accompanying adequacies and inadequacies. Moreover, they suggest a series of priorities about which national, regional and local planners should make up their minds.

The central task for all teachers is to clarify for themselves, individually and collectively, what their educational aims are; what practices they are carrying out to realize those aims; and what methods they are using to monitor those practices and evaluate their outcomes at the end of the educational process they have set in train. This must mean testing the outcomes against the original aims and modifying either the aims or the practices.

Such INSET aims and objectives would respond to certain, school-focused needs. For secondary schools, the immediate priorities are the need to review the total curricula, to establish how relevant and appropriate are the 'subjects' on offer for the pupils' future, post-school lives; what should be excluded or included in these curricula; what relative weightings should be given to them; what are the most appropriate teaching stances, methods and attitudes to be adopted; what sort of in-school and out-of-school material and location resources might be used (for example, linked courses, residential visits, work experience, community involvements); and, finally, whether the present methods of evaluation (GCE, CSE Modes I, II and III) are adequate for testing the stated aims of the syllabuses in use, or whether other forms of evaluation should not be evolved.

The entire range of INSET provision, inevitably, would be called upon to respond to such needs, including the use of award-bearing courses such as diplomas in professional studies, BEd and MEd degrees.

The perspective of groups of teachers within a school, or group of schools, working their way through a BEd or an MEd, structured to facilitate such curriculum developments, seems an eminently desirable and practicable objective well within the range of immediate possibility.

For primary schools, the same kind of across-the-curricula discussions are also needed with the same pedagogical 'targets', represented by 'working towards identified goals'. 'Who does the "identifying" and by what methods should/will the goals be realized?' are crucial questions to which we need urgently to find answers, using soundly evolved educational theory and practice. The organizational arrangements and practices in primary schools need to be tested against comparative achievement studies. All teachers should be able to analyse, critically and objectively, against predetermined criteria, whether such arrangements and modifications are better or worse for the achievement of their educational aims. Act-of-faith judgements on making changes in, say, reading and number material and methods; of vertical or horizontal groupings; of initiating 'cooperative' teaching, must end and teacher-based and generated research methods should be developed instead to enable such assessments to be made.

These ideas represent only the beginning of a list of priorities into which all other programmes would be subsumed. What is suggested is a strategy for curriculum development together with, as outlined earlier, the training objectives and criteria which would enable such a strategy to be realized.

How far they will, or can, be realized depends upon the capacity, willingness and levels of understanding of providers (including 'resource' providers) and planners to re-examine their own curriculum aims and objectives in the light of what has been said in this article.

Anything less than this and the inevitable outcome will be faltering, hesitancy and ultimate failure.

Nowadays teachers as a professional group are under a great deal of pressure. The extent to which they can, or will, be persuaded to engage in their own in-service education is likely to be increasingly problematic and will need to be handled with great skill and tact by both LEAs and the providing institutions. The extent to which teachers will be prepared to cover for colleagues absent in person (or in spirit) because they are on an INSET course is a matter which can neither be assumed nor taken for granted. If teachers believe that INSET programmes are in their interests, they are likely to respond at the professional level. But for that to happen, they will have first to be treated as professionals, without paternalism or patronage.

Training the trainers

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The teacher induction pilot schemes in Liverpool and Northumberland have been judged to be generally successful by those in the best position to know – the teachers themselves and the heads. Two national evaluation and progress reports* both reached this conclusion and DES funding for the two schemes has now been extended for a fifth and final year (1977–78).

The three main features of the experimental schemes were: a reduced (75 per cent) teaching load for probationary teachers; the designation in each school of an experienced teacher as a teacher-tutor to guide and support the probationers; and special induction training courses for probationers at local colleges of education and teachers' centres. The first two features have been most highly regarded by teachers but the external courses were also valued by a substantial minority.

* DES Report on Education No 84, *Helping New Teachers: The Induction Year*, and No 89, *Teacher Induction: Pilot Schemes' Progress*. Available free from DES.

In addition to these two funded schemes, the national evaluation team, based at the University of Bristol, has also been closely monitoring four other schemes – in Avon, Cumbria, ILEA Division 8, and Leeds, which have been run without DES funding. Three of them use external, peripatetic tutors to visit the probationers' school and classrooms. These are advisory teachers in Cumbria, experienced teachers in Division 8, and college lecturers and experienced teachers in Avon. In Leeds, the staff tutors are responsible for initial and in-service training as well as for induction.

In these 'unsponsored' schemes, and even more so in the two main schemes, one of the most critical issues to emerge is the extent to which tutors should engage in a training, rather than in simply a pastoral, role and systematically observe the probationers' lessons. This, in turn, has raised the question of what knowledge and skills tutors need to carry out a training role. A major task during the final year will be to develop more effective tutor-training programmes to tackle these issues.

The needs of probationers

Clearly, the first consideration in any induction scheme is the needs of probationers: only then can the role of the tutor be adequately specified. The framework of probationers' needs, devised in earlier research work at Bristol, appears to have stood the test of experience during the pilot schemes. Its six stages are best understood within the chronology of the school year:

Pre-service	1. Appointment and placement
	2a. Orientation
Autumn term	2b. Orientation
	3. Adaptation
	4a. Assessment
Spring term	5a. Development
Summer term	5b. Development
	4b. Assessment
	6. Overview

The probationers' needs begin at the time of appointment. Following this, orientation to the routines and procedures of the school and LEA can take place during a pre-service visit or during the first days and weeks of the autumn term. The adaptation period is one in which the probationer is coming to terms with, and reconciling, the frequently conflicting demands of the school, the pupils, his own inclinations and the advice given in initial training. In short, he is formulating his own teaching style in a particular context and to do so he needs support and encouragement. Towards the end of the autumn term, most LEAs ask the head to complete a progress

assessment form so that probationers at risk can be identified. From about Christmas onwards, most probationers have settled in and are ready for training activities to meet their professional development needs. The final assessment form is usually completed towards the end of the summer term and can be used to stimulate an overview both of the past year's experience and of career and in-service education and training opportunities during the second year and beyond.

The tutors' role

One Northumberland secondary tutor,* describing some of the practicalities of the job, says that as a tutor she is involved in working with the timetable planner to arrange the necessary release time for probationers; welcoming the new teachers during their pre-service visits and coordinating the briefing materials given to them; organizing seminar groups for probationers in which experienced colleagues also participate; giving a weekly tutorial session to each probationer; arranging visits to other schools; and generally coordinating the contributions of heads of department and other staff to the induction scheme.

Naturally, the job differs somewhat in the primary school – for example, group seminars are less likely – and the role of the peripatetic tutors in the unsponsored schemes is even more different. However, all tutors have one problem in common: how to provide effective help which is relevant to the needs of the probationer as a classroom teacher. The evidence from the two main schemes is that tutors have been reluctant to enter their probationers' classrooms to observe them teaching even though it was part of their job specification. The two main reasons given are that this might reduce the probationer to the status of a student teacher and that, in most schools, there is no tradition of observing colleagues teaching. Of the many professional issues raised by these findings, two are directly relevant to the present theme: What indirect information about teaching can tutors obtain without going into the classroom? What approaches are open to them if they go into the classroom?

The most satisfactory way of obtaining detailed and systematic information about probationers' classroom work is to ask the probationer for a self-report which could take the form of an oral account, a written account, or an audio-tape of a lesson, supplemented by lesson notes and examples of children's work. Once the tutor does enter the probationer's classroom several broad options are open to him. He may simply sit at the back and take no part in the proceedings; he may move round the room talking to the children individually; he may assist the probationer without actually teaching; he may engage in joint or team teaching with the probationer; or he may take over the teaching entirely for a short period. Any of these may be useful for particular purposes, but to be really effective they need to be grounded in an appropriate strategy.

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* Wesencraft, A. 'The teacher-tutor'. *Secondary Education.* Vol. 6, No. 2, 1976.

Two skills needed by teacher-tutors

One such strategy which has apparently worked successfully in the USA is known as clinical supervision. Perhaps the best known account* identifies eight crucial steps in the clinical supervision process:

1. establishing a good probationer-tutor relationship so that the probationer is reasonably ready to accept advice based upon direct classroom observation;
2. joint planning of a lesson or teaching sequence;
3. joint planning of the tutor's observation strategy;
4. observation of teaching;
5. separate analysis of the lesson and record of observation;
6. planning of the supervision conference by the tutor;
7. the clinical supervision conference between tutor and probationer;
8. renewed planning of the next phase in the light of this experience.

The evaluation data indicate that few pilot scheme tutors adopted this approach, partly through lack of time, but mainly because they were unfamiliar with it and the underlying skills on which it depends. Two of the skills will serve to illustrate the point: first, the analysis of teaching and second, the counselling of individual adults.

The tutors generally used intuitive methods to diagnose the strengths and weaknesses of their probationers but most have responded favourably to the suggestion that their judgements can be strengthened by the use of various structured appraisal schedules. These normally break up the lesson into its component parts (for example, opening the lesson, questioning technique, evaluation methods used) to specify more closely those areas in which support needs to be given. The ultimate aim may be for tutors to devise their own task-specific schedules, but experience indicates that they are better able to do this after they have tried out some of the established appraisal and interaction analysis schedules. Incidentally, such schedules are intended for diagnosis rather than for assessment of the probationary period; indeed, they can be used by the probationers themselves for self-diagnosis and appraisal.

All the tutors are experienced teachers of children, but very few have had any experience of teaching adults – which is, in effect, what they are being called upon to do in their new role. The clinical supervision approach outlined above argues that the tutor should treat the probationer as a professional colleague who is ultimately responsible for his own professional behaviour. The tutor will thus offer particular skills (for example, diagnostic and analytic techniques), but the responsibility for solving the probationer's problems rests with the probationer, not the tutor. This type of relationship is a difficult one

*Cogan, M. *Clinical Supervision.* Houghton Mifflin, 1973.

to initiate and sustain and experience suggests that much could be learned from the work of adult counsellors who frequently adopt an analogous relationship with their clients. The aim of these counselling skills would continue to be the improvement of the probationers' professional performance rather than of their personal and social skills.

Training the tutors

The current attitude to tutor training in the two funded pilot schemes is probably summed up in a quotation from a recent report of the Liverpool Advisory Committee on In-Service Education:

> The ten-day briefing sessions held in 1974, before the start of the scheme proper, and the five-day session plus follow-up held in 1975 have been described in Reports First and Second Year.
>
> It was not believed at the time that these constituted in any way a complete training programme and, indeed, it quickly became clear that teacher-tutors desired an ongoing series of meetings to discuss their problems. Out of these discussions has arisen a clearer understanding of the role and so of some of the skills required which could only be acquired by a formal training programme.

The strongest feature of the support programmes for tutors mounted up to July 1977 has been the provision of opportunities for role clarification. A good example of this was a three-day residential conference for tutors in Northumberland in November 1976, at which they made specific recommendations to the LEA about many of the issues discussed above. There have also been several skill-training exercises for tutors in the unsponsored as well as in the two main schemes. In Leeds, for example, classroom interaction analysis skills were taught. In Clwyd, the tutors simulated a tutorial session with a probationer who was role-played by a trained, experienced counsellor. Each simulated session was videotaped and discussed afterwards in the light of information about counselling theory and practice provided by the counsellor.

One notable development in Liverpool has been the use of the 'effective questioning' microteaching materials developed by Professor Elizabeth Perrott at Lancaster University. A second development has been the adaptation of the, so-called, Santa Barbara materials to meet the needs of teacher-tutors. These consist of a manual of print materials, including simulation exercises, and a set of videotapes of classroom incidents and clinical supervision conferences. According to a recent induction newsletter produced by the Liverpool evaluator:

> The materials aim to teach various aspects of the process of supervision, which they view as being the job of helping a probationer to define and study his teaching problems. These aspects include, for example, a study of the nature of the working relationship between probationer and teacher-tutor, and the rather sensitive process of helping probationers to improve their own teaching by becoming self-critical. It is not enough to know about the process itself, however, and so, during the programme, teacher-tutors will also be practising such specific skills as the development and use of particular questions and responses to encourage clear communication with the probationer, and to encourage the probationers to clarify in their own minds the exact nature of their problems.

Policy implications

The broad structure and content of an effective tutor-training scheme can now be outlined with reasonable confidence. It is clear that a preparatory course, however desirable, is not in itself sufficient: tutors in the two main and several unsponsored schemes have indicated firmly that they also want on-going, in-service support and training while they are carrying out their new roles. The content of the course will probably be aimed at the three main attributes – attitudes, knowledge and skills – needed to carry out the role. Earlier training efforts have concentrated on attitudes and knowledge; this article has therefore focused on the hitherto neglected component – skills

The main skills suggested for inclusion are clinical supervision, microteaching, classroom interaction analysis and adult counselling. If there is to be adequate opportunity to practise these skills in both simulated and real-life situations, then the course would have to be at least one year long. The old Advisory Training Organization/ DES course format of ninety hours, made up of both block-release and evening sessions over a year, appears to offer one possible format. A more intractable problem is that the number of people qualified to run such training courses is probably rather small at present. Yet if induction schemes on the Liverpool and Northumberland lines were to be mounted nationally, the demand for training programmes would be very considerable indeed.

By setting this problem in a wider context, we certainly gain a clearer idea of its scale – which is enormous – but the strategy needed for dealing with it also becomes, arguably, economically more viable. If recent calls for staff development policies to be instituted at the school level are heeded, then those carrying out the equivalent of professional tutors' roles will be added to the existing list of lecturers, LEA advisers, advisory teachers and teachers' centre wardens already engaged in teacher training. The need for a national policy on the preparatory and in-service training of these trainers will accordingly become even more urgent. The rewards of a sound national strategy, particularly one aimed at school-based and school-focused training, ought to be significant in terms of improved standards of teaching in the classroom. Viewed in this light, a comprehensive policy for training the trainers should be economically feasible. In the meantime, the teacher-induction pilot schemes are providing many valuable lessons both for the current cohorts of tutors and also for the development of a future national policy on the training needs of teacher-trainers.

The role of teachers' centres in in-service education

HARRY KAHN

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> The teachers' centre is both a place and a concept; a place where skills are improved and innovations shared; and a concept of professional growth which values the integrity of each teacher's work . . . it can respond to the needs of teachers and enhance their professional growth in a positive and constructive way.*

The whole of teacher education in this country is currently in a greater state of flux than it has even been before. The initial teacher education sector – the colleges of education – have been most drastically affected by falling school rolls. The induction of teachers into the profession is bound to become more systematized and, in many places for the first time, planned as part of a continuing process. This is the result of the pilot projects in this field and their evaluation by the Bristol team.† Meantime, in-service education is having to fight for its life as a result of the unavoidable economic cuts made by LEAs which, usually reluctantly, mean a reduction in in-service provision because it is non-statutory. It is hard to believe that it was less than six years ago that Lord James wrote 'A great weight of evidence submitted to this Committee orally and in writing suggests that a much expanded and properly coordinated programme of in-service education and training is essential to the future strength and development of the teaching profession'.‡ The expansion of in-service training (INSET), the only item of the James Report unanimously acclaimed, must still await the millenium. However, efforts to obtain coordination in in-service education have been under constant discussion in recent years, with blueprints for machinery to bring this about appearing and disappearing with great rapidity. What should be the role of teachers' centres in a rationalized plan for INSET? What is the basis for the view, expressed by many educators, including the writer, that the teachers' centre movement has revolutionized the philosophy and mode of operation of INSET in the last decade?

Beginnings

Teachers' centres originated from two sources. First, the Nuffield

* Levine, C. and Horwitz, R. 'The Teacher Center Inc. (Newhaven, Connecticut): a case study.' *Educational Leadership USA*. Vol. 33, No. 6, March 1976. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

† See 'Training the trainers,' p. 21.

‡ *Teacher Education and Training*. Report by a Committee of Inquiry under the Chairmanship of Lord James of Rusholme. London: HMSO, 1972.

Projects in the 1960s which required pilot areas to provide a meeting place for teachers taking part in the project so that they could discuss and amend content in the light of experience and make materials to assist them in the classroom. And second, the Schools Council Working Paper No 10,* the 'Little Red Pamphlet' as Bob Thornbury called it,† which called for LEAs to respond to 'the expressed wish of teachers to come together to conduct for themselves curriculum development'. However, it is doubtful if either of these two well-meaning parents would recognize their child as it moved into its teens. However, they would probably be proud of their progeny and of its effect on the thinking about in-service education for teachers, not only in Britain, but also in the many far-flung parts of the world from which a flow of educationists continues to come here to study this 'British first'.

While it is doubtful whether there are more than 600 centres, as claimed by the Schools Council's list of centres, while each of those centres has grown to serve the needs of teachers in its locality (there is no such thing as a typical centre, each has its own functions, staffing and accommodation), the centres share a common philosophy which, even if the centres themselves were to disappear tomorrow, would remain and leave its mark on teacher education.

Both a premise and premises

The quotation at the head of this article encapsulates much of the teachers' centre philosophy and emphasizes the point that a centre is not only a place but also a concept – a premise and premises. Much has been written about the centres' philosophy elsewhere‡ but some of the main points are worth mentioning here.

Centres have accepted that the classroom teacher is a professional in every sense of the word and that the task of in-service education is to support him in his professional task. The dichotomy between in-service training and in-service education and between a solution-centred as opposed to a problem-centred approach to INSET was made by Michael Eraut as long ago as 1972.§ Centres – pragmatically at first – accepted that their task is education and their mode of operation the problem-centred one. The previous traditional forms of INSET had '. . . largely ignored the fact that the participants are often experienced teachers with as much to contribute as to receive'.** Hence the teachers' centre accepts the teachers as both providers and consumers of in-service education.

The very title 'teachers' centre' implies that the centre is of the teachers, run by the teachers, and for the teachers. Thus a centre's

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* *Curriculum Development: Teachers' Groups and Centres.* London: HMSO, 1967.

† Thornbury, R. E. (Ed.). *Teachers' Centres.* Darton, Longman and Todd, 1973.

‡ Burrell, D. 'The Teachers' Centre: A Critical Analysis.' *Educational Leadership USA*, op. cit. and Kahn, H. *The Role of Educational Support Services in Teacher Education, Part II Teachers' Centres.* Commonwealth Secretariat Caribbean INSET Workshop Lead Paper 1977.

§ Eraut, Michael. *In-Service Education for Innovation.* NCET, 1972.

** Eraut, op. cit.

decision-making bodies are democratically based on a teacher majority so that the policy, activities, programme and all the facets of its work are controlled by those whom the centre seeks to assist – the teachers. Nevertheless, these bodies usually incorporate representatives of other in-service providers – advisers and college lecturers – so that their expertise can be at the disposal of the teachers. A first modest step towards cooperation between INSET providers.

'Fundamental to the teachers' centre approach is a belief that the kind of learning teachers want to do can occur in an atmosphere which is inviting, hospitable, supportive and non-evaluative.'* Thus centres try to get away from the institutional atmosphere of the schools in which teachers work all day. Above all, they preserve a genuine neutrality so that teachers can air their weaknesses – and strengths – knowing that no one will be evaluating them for promotion or demotion, even though the group may consist of headteachers, college tutors, advisers, and officers, as well as teachers at all stages of development – from induction to near retirement.

Teachers' centres are also sensitive to changes and new developments in the specific needs of teachers and are flexible in their approach to meeting these needs. Thus flexibility in programming so as to meet teachers' needs as and when they occur is an essential element, as is the need for relevance. Speakers, group and workshop leaders are chosen because they have a contribution to make which is relevant to the classroom teacher, and not because they hold a prestigious position or are members of the staff of a prestigious institution.

At one time, a teacher, closed up in his or her classroom with thirty or forty children could be very isolated. Centres have made it one of their tasks to assist in breaking down barriers between secondary teachers and primary colleagues, between teachers and administrators and between classroom practitioners and college of education lecturers. This has been beneficial not only to the teachers emerging from their 'little boxes', but also to the smooth flow of the educational process from nursery school to the sixth form. There is now a move to organize school-based or school-focused activities, which cater for the staff of one school or a group of schools. Such activities often have a greater impact on the solution of a school's particular problems than if one convert were to return, overflowing with enthusiasm, to a staffroom not touched by the magic of an activity in which they did not participate. Centres, however, continue to stress the value of activities across the age range of pupils and balance the two modes of operation in their programmes.

Above all, teachers' centres are local. This not only gives teachers easy access to the centre but also allows them to be in close touch geographically and psychologically with the schools of the area. Most centre wardens are frequent visitors to the schools and keep in touch with classroom and staffroom developments. They are thus

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* 'The Teacher Center Inc. (Newhaven, Connecticut)', op. cit.

able to monitor the support needed by the individual local teacher at school and classroom level, and thus to provide the right support at the right moment.

Sustained support for teachers

The functions of a teachers' centre can be summed up as 'support for teachers'. Although centres vary in the emphasis of their work according to local teachers' needs, this support will usually include local curriculum development activities; dissemination, adaptation to local needs and feedback to national and regional curriculum development projects; resources across a wide spectrum, including advice, reprographics, audio-visual aids, library facilities, social facilities and activities and pastoral support; in-service education workshops, working parties, and courses. 'The workshops (and other activities) emphasize an active approach to learning, and special attention is paid to maintaining an informal atmosphere, encouraging interaction among participants and building self-confidence as well as knowledge.'* This quote summarizes a centre's approach to activities where the pure lecture, a non-participatory mode, has largely given way to the workshop, in the widest meaning of the term, and where the seminar and working party are based on the belief in the teacher-professional. In this sense, the centre approach has very much paralleled the change to open education in the classroom.

Recognition

Only the wildest enthusiast, and they do exist, would claim that teachers' centres can meet all the needs for INSET. Clearly centres have most to offer at the non-award-bearing, especially non-traditional, end of the spectrum of INSET, and less as one moves towards the award-bearing, degree and diploma end. At that point of the spectrum, universities and colleges of education will always have a special role. However, all those in the field of INSET have been slow to recognize the need for a collaborative effort between all the providers, acting as equal partners in meeting the multiplicity of teachers' needs. In a period when college of education staff are threatened daily with redundancy, the field of in-service education has the appearance of an oasis. However, this will prove to be a mirage unless tutors recognize that the whole philosophy of INSET has changed. Equally, centre leaders must accept other providers as potential allies rather than subversive agents aiming to usurp the centre's work.

While to date there has been no rigorous evaluation of the work of centres and its effect on INSET and education in the classroom, teachers are daily demonstrating in practice – by their continued attendance at centres in large numbers (primary and secondary

* 'The Teacher Center Inc. (Newhaven, Connecticut)', op. cit.

teachers) – that they, at any rate, value the services offered. Equally, the various teachers' professional associations – the NUT et al – and the DES have begun recently to show their continued support for the special contribution of centres to INSET. Visitors come daily, in larger numbers, from all parts of the world to study the philosophy of centres and to see how to adapt their approach to their own situation at home.

The new decade and beyond

However severe the economic cuts may become, there will still be a need, in the future, for an expanded and properly coordinated INSET provision. On the one hand, the stability of the profession with fewer new entrants will mean that new curricula and modes of teaching can only be introduced through in-service education. On the other hand, at a time of increasing special change teachers will need 'to develop criteria which would help them to assess their teaching roles in relation to a changed society for which schools must equip their pupils.'* The teachers' centre is uniquely placed in the cooperative pattern which must emerge to cope with this situation.

Cooperation between all the providers – centres, universities, colleges, advisory staffs and so on – will ensure that the clients – the teachers – receive the best service possible. Such a professional network, if it is to be relevant, must inherit the centre's philosophy of the teacher professional and its mode of operation. The teachers' centres themselves, being in closest touch with the classroom practitioners, having established their neutrality and flexibility, and having already built up a network of contacts with all that is best and most relevant among other providers, are in the ideal position to stand at the centre of such a professional network. Centres will be thought of more and more as a premise and less as premises. INSET activities will be based at, and conducted by, the most suitable unit of the network. At the administrative centre will be the teachers' centre and its staff, still answerable to a committee structure with an in-built teacher majority. Its influence will be greatest at the local level but will extend through the regional to the national level.

Whatever the future may hold, however, no one can even now gainsay the fact that: 'The teachers' centre (and its philosophy) is a unique vehicle for in-service education [and that] it can respond to the needs of teachers and enhance their professional growth in a positive and constructive way.'†

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* Document of the Induction and In-service Training Sub-Committee of the DES.
† 'The Teacher Center Inc. (Newhaven, Connecticut)', op. cit.

School-based teacher training: the 'regent' scheme in Scotland

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Despite the cutbacks and controversy surrounding teacher education, it still seems safe to assume that interest in induction schemes, teacher-tutors, and school-based training, will grow. After all, the continued expansion of in-service courses and induction training has received recent and personal encouragement from the Secretary of State for Education and Science, Mrs Shirley Williams, and a report on one of the Government's pilot schemes has concluded that strong support must be given to the teacher-tutor as a key person in the school and training system.*

Alongside such concern, one may also note the ever-widening range of investigations which seek to describe, analyse and sometimes compare the development of school-focused in-service training and the nature of school-college collaboration in Europe and elsewhere.†

In all this, it would be a pity if the experience of Scotland were ignored. Indeed, it is all too easy to forget that this part of the UK has its own distinctive educational history, with a continuing tradition of central control and educational policies which promote a rather different pattern of school attendance, curriculum provision, examinations and awards from that in England and Wales.

In teacher education, the distinctive features are no less noticeable, in spite of current uncertainties and the debate, shared with England and Wales, about the future of the colleges.‡

To begin with, there are no schools or education institutes grouped around a university. Each college is governed by an autonomous board, and receives financial resources centrally from the Scottish Education Department, being in no way subject to the local education authorities. In comparison with the English and Welsh colleges (and some more recently formed institutes or consortia for

* *Northumberland Pilot Induction Scheme*. Evaluation Report No 16. School of Education, University of Newcastle upon Tyne, March 1977.

† For example, in the current preparation of case-studies on school-focused training sponsored by OECD/CERI and likely to include Australia, New Zealand, Sweden, UK, USA, Canada and Germany.

‡ Begun in February 1977 with the Secretary of State for Scotland's recommendations in a consultative document headed 'Teacher Training for 1977 Onwards', and reported in subsequent issues of *The Times Educational Supplement* (Scotland). In May 1977 the Secretary of State issued a second document.

higher education), the four older centres* are also very large and all the colleges have expanded a statutory responsibility for providing in-service training in their areas. There is an ever-growing number of courses and opportunities, not only in teaching, but also in social work, speech therapy, youth and community work, educational management, and teaching in further education.†

A General Teaching Council (GTC) has an oversight of (and makes recommendations about) professional training, and maintains a register of teachers who enter the profession in Scotland. Since 1966, in fact, the responsibility for advising on standards of entry to the profession, for questions concerning teacher dismissal or suspension from the 'register', and for recommendations about the supply and training of teachers, has rested with a national body. This was the first professional council for teachers in the world and it demonstrates the view that professional competence could, and should, be judged by members of the profession itself. The GTC is composed of forty-nine members, thirty of whom are elected by teachers according to category of employment (primary, secondary, further education, college of education), fifteen are appointed by various educational interests and four are nominated by the Secretary of State for Scotland.

The 'regent'

In 1971, the GTC appointed a working party to review secondary school teacher training, in response to a request from the Secretary of State for Scotland.

The working party's recommendations contained in its report, 'The Training of Graduates for Secondary Education' (1972),‡ were approved by the Council but the report was later rejected by the Secretary of State. However, it was an important landmark, appearing at a time when there was growing pressure for the reform of teacher education in Scotland.

Two major issues may be noted here. The first is the very strong support given to the principle of 'sandwich' training, whereby an improved form of training would, it is hoped, become an integral and middle part of a sandwich course. Phases I and III, mainly college-based, would provide preparatory courses and further in-depth study of problems arising from probation.

The second feature is the significant endorsement that was given to continuous training and professional development ('. . . training

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* viz. Moray House, Edinburgh (1913); Aberdeen (1919); Dundee (1920); and Jordanhill, Glasgow (1921). Dates of opening given in brackets.

† Some background information about these developments are to be found in Peck, B. T. 'Tradition and change in Scottish teacher education'. *Education for Teaching*, Autumn 1968. Peck, B. T. 'The Scottish colleges of education: recent trends and future problems.' *Education for Teaching*, Summer 1974.

‡ *The Training of Graduates for Secondary Education*. A report submitted by the General Teaching Council for Scotland to the Secretary of State for Scotland. HMSO, 1972.

should be a concept that covers the teacher's professional life from the time he enters college until his retirement . . .'), coupled with support for an increased, and more clearly-defined, share of this work for teachers.

All this is not surprising. After all, ten members of the working party (out of a total of twenty) were head teachers or principal teachers and already much of the evidence submitted had argued that the quality of practical training should be improved, and that the potential training resources of the schools should be more effectively utilized. 'It is manifest,' said the working party, 'that the teaching profession as a whole desires to take a much larger and more clearly-defined share of the work of training teachers . . . we are confident that the profession as a whole would be ready to offer its whole-hearted cooperation.'

Given this context, an urgent task was to find a suitable title, role and activity for a responsible teacher who would coordinate teacher training in every secondary school in Scotland. He or she would be the 'regent', essentially a promoted teacher 'who has real enthusiasm for the job and the right personality, who would be "nominated" by the head teacher and have his duties delegated by him, and who would have a "proven interest in teacher training".'* The regent 'must be trained'† and be prepared to arrange orientation courses for students and trainees entering his school; to organize discussion groups and seminars; and to become, in a word, a key link in the school-college teacher education system.

Developments 1972–1977

For a variety of not wholly unexpected reasons, the optimism about a 'sandwich' pattern of training was ill-founded. Yet the recommendation that there should be regents in schools has made some impact. Certainly, in the West of Scotland‡ – the appointment of a regent is becoming more common in secondary schools as a result of initiatives taken by Jordanhill College of Education. In other colleges, including Aberdeen§ and Moray House, there have been similar developments, the latter in its links with primary schools. In addition, there are important growth-points at the school level. With the active encouragement of the local education authority, a number of far-sighted heads have sometimes given a special responsibility for students and for staff development to one of the assistant head teachers. Furthermore, and over and above these developments,

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* op. cit. para 55, page 28.

† op. cit. para 57, pages 28–29.

‡ Further elaboration of specific problems and issues relating to school–college collaboration and the role of the regent, is given by the authors in three articles: 'Coming to terms with a teacher surplus.' *The Times Education Supplement* (Scotland), December 10, 1976. 'Rank upon rank of specialists', TES (Scotland), December 17, 1976. 'Concern of the whole system,' TES (Scotland), December 24, 1976.

§ See also TES (Scotland) September 29, 1972, and January 19, 1973.

the Scottish Education Department and the GTC are partners in another working party whose brief is:

> To identify and evaluate experimental work and recent developments in schools and colleges of education designed to improve the quality of student teaching practice and the arrangements for the induction of probationer teachers. . . .

Inevitably, such developments at the secondary level have been associated with those city-based institutions which have long had responsibilities for training graduates. In the industrial Strathclyde region, Jordanhill College has played a leading role and, until recently, recruited annually nearly 1,000 graduates for secondary education courses.

The regent scheme based on this college began in 1974. Initially, it involved nine schools but was extended to a further eight schools in the 1975/76 session. By April 1977, some thirty-two secondary schools were involved, with the prospect that, in each of the following few years, still more schools will be added, subject to the current education cuts.

This experiment has focused on the problems and orientation of students in pre-service training. Fundamental to the scheme has been the attempt to arrange school-based tutorials which would reflect in the real school situation, tutorial topics which originated in professional subject courses (for example, education and psychology). In the first and exploratory period, it was also clear that many regents tackled their duties according to their own views and that there were significant variations in the relationships established between them and the members of the professional subject departments. It may well be that the remodelling of college-based courses around specific units of work will iron out these difficulties.

Current concerns and future prospects

The General Teaching Council, the teachers' professional organizations, the regional educational authorities and the colleges of education are prominent among the various interests seeking to influence the regent schemes in Scotland. Any decisions about the schemes will have to be taken in the light of this. The Secretary of State for Scotland, who in a real sense has the ultimate power, is also involved in, for example, decisions about pupil-teacher ratios. He also has the power to implement the proposal, so far ignored, to give schools a staffing allowance of 0·33 of a teacher for each first-year probationer.* In February 1976, the Secretary of State invited the GTC to join with the Scottish Education Department in a working party to examine issues relating to teaching practice, the probationary period and the relationship between schools and colleges. The findings of this working group led by the previous chairman of the Council, Mr Thomas Sneddon, are awaited with interest and the need

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* *Secondary School Staffing*. Scottish Education Department. HMSO, 1973.

for practical developments is being increasingly recognized. There have in fact been more developments than the 'official' regent schemes themselves suggest. Imaginative 'unofficial' schemes have been in existence for some time. The pattern which exists in one school provides a good example. An assistant head teacher (AHT) has been designated AHT (staff). He has a much broader remit than the 'Jordanhill-type' regent, being concerned with all aspects of student teaching practice, as well as with the staff development of probationers and of experienced and fully registered teachers. This kind of development has much to commend it and is favoured because the point of origin is the individual school.

What seems to be called for, and the Sneddon Committee may recommend this, is a synthesis of the two sorts of development described above, the one originating in the college, and the other in the school. Both have strengths and weaknesses. The first has not yet constructed a model which adequately accounts for the all-round development of the skills of the student-teacher; the second may be so concerned with the particular school that the broader issues are neglected. A synthesis would incorporate the expertise of college and school in programmes of activity which recognize all aspects of staff development at the three stages of pre-service, the probationary years and in-service. Such an arrangement could solve those difficult problems of status, role, training and remuneration of the specialist staff who would be involved. The Scottish situation, with its clear, hierarchical structure of promoted posts – head teacher, deputy head teacher, assistant head teacher, principal teacher and assistant principal teacher – seems to be in a good position to take full advantage of the developments that are being advocated.

Curriculum: an HMI view

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An abridged version of Miss Browne's address to the Council of Local Education Authorities' (CLEA) Annual Conference, 14 July 1977.

To save anyone else the trouble, may I say that this talk is sub-titled 'The Secret Garden seen by the Secret Service'. I hope by the end both will be less secret and the interrelationship between the two will be better understood. At this stage, I would merely say that, by right and by obligation, HMI does walk in the garden of the curriculum and passes comment upon it: but, contrary to the assertions of some critics – critics, that is, of either the garden of the curriculum or of HMI – he does not personally plan it or plant it, still less strew it with weeds . . .

I should like to talk about it (the curriculum) under three heads:

> What we know about it – since this is HMI's first obligation.
>
> How we judge it, in both senses, i.e. what influences our judgement and what that judgement is.
>
> What we are doing about what we know.

. . . I shall have to be very superficial and to generalize to a painful degree. With nearly 30,000 schools, if you take the independent sector as well as the maintained, that is inevitable; last year HMI visited only just over a quarter of all maintained primary schools, and about two-thirds of all secondary schools and some of those visits were inevitably brief; but we have our major exercises and I think I have grounds for generalization. All of you will be able to quote exceptions to what I say, but that does not necessarily invalidate the picture: you, too, are up against the problem of the 30,000!

May I first set myself two limits: I shall talk only about the curriculum of pupils aged 5–16 and I shall take the definition of the curriculum to be 'that which a school plans that its pupils should learn through the formal classroom provision and in those out of school activities which relate to them' . . .

Immediately one is up against an obstacle. It is not possible to talk about the curriculum as a vertical whole, with the secondary part firmly linked to the primary and continuing it. I shall therefore treat the phases separately. In so doing, I am begging an enormous question, which we cannot afford to neglect. How far and in what ways is continuity essential to a valid curriculum? There *is* a primary school curriculum and, contrary to what is often said, a pretty

traditional one. (The contrary opinion arises, perhaps, because people confuse standards with the curriculum, or teaching methods with the curriculum. I am considering neither, though there are interrelationships there which HMI explores with his professional 'clients'.)

Primary school curriculum

The present primary school curriculum undoubtedly gives priority to the basic skills – first, to language skills, in the descending order reading, writing and spoken word, and then to mathematics, with practice of the four rules taking precedence over investigation and practical work. Oddly enough, or perhaps not oddly, given previous experience, the recent swing towards the basic skills, which followed the press reports of the Bennett research, seems to be leading to a narrowing of the definition of these skills, and a risk of their separation within the curriculum from their applications.

Outside these key areas, the overall pattern of the curriculum is fairly common, but not very well defined nor uniform in detail. The pattern shows a certain repetitiveness of detail, not always deliberate. I take the elements again in descending order of time given and successful practice; first, work related to knowledge and understanding of self and society, that is religious education, history and geography; aesthetic subjects – art, craft and music, already set somewhat at risk since the pendulum started to swing towards the basic skills; physical education, more in the form of gymnastics and games than of movement, dance or drama; and, in a very insecure position at the bottom of the list, both science and French . . .

The primary curriculum, again contrary to prevailing myth, is not subject to great variation from any particular cause. It does not seem, for example, to vary by geographical region, though there is some variation by type of catchment area. The full analysis of this must wait for the publication of the Primary Survey next year. No doubt I shall seem out of tune with trends and the state of the economy if I pull out only one point now, namely that HMI has the impression that rural schools – and I am not saying small rural schools – may be in some respects nearer the heart of the educational matter . . . Something of the same superiority is attributed to separate infant schools . . . Size, except insofar as larger size may bring advantages in physical resources, does not seem particularly significant to the primary curriculum. The pattern of variation by sex remains much as described in Education Survey 21, *Curricular Differences for Boys and Girls.**

Variation according to the ability of the pupil is much as we have known it for the last fifteen years or so. Whatever the organization, children normally have individual assignments of work for basic subjects and for art and craft. But, in general, individualization affects the pace at which the pupil covers or circles the ground rather

* London: HMSO. 1975.

than the relief or elevation of the terrain. The curriculum of the least able usually provides for extra time and attention to be given to the basic skills. At the other end of the spectrum, arrangements to meet the needs of the very able in curricular terms are rare. Occasionally opportunities to learn French are restricted to the more able, but this is not the sort of curricular differentiation by extension and enrichment that one looks for.

Middle school curriculum

The curriculum of the middle school is more difficult to describe, not least because of the range of institutions covered by the term and their relative newness. For the 8–12 or 5–12 schools, that is about two-thirds of the 1976 total of about 1,500 middle schools, most of what has been said of the primary school applies. There is simply rather more variation by ability for the older pupils in some parts of the curriculum. In the 9–13 schools, the curriculum faces added hazards and begins to partake of the secondary school problem which we shall come to. Instead of being a continuous whole throughout the age span, the curriculum tends to separate out by year group or by whether the children are over or under 11. It feels obliged to try to match the traditional curriculum of the secondary school – often without the resources. It is increasingly aware of being in the middle of the educational sandwich and of having to meet certain rather obvious but sometimes limited expectations at the point of transfer. But the curriculum of the middle school is still essentially a common curriculum.

Secondary school curriculum

It is when one gets to the secondary stage proper, which for convenience I am taking as starting at 11-plus, that current practice makes it virtually impossible to talk about 'the' curriculum. If you take a view across the country and across all types of secondary school, curricular practice is consistent in detail neither vertically nor horizontally. The curriculum, however, is consistent across the country in its basic principles and is generally consistent, too, within any school. The aims of secondary education as we understand them, require differentiation of the curriculum, particularly from the age of 14. In addition, the real world in which schools are set imposes many constraints which again make for differences.

And so one has the paradox that the age of the common school is the age of the non-common and sometimes distinctly uncommon curriculum. It shows more or less variation by age of pupil, by ability, by aspiration, by sex, by size of school, by age range of school, by available resources, by pupil choice – or sometimes pupil rejection, by teacher choice, and a little by locality. But the variations by external cause are not nationally consistent. You cannot say: small school, therefore this or that curriculum, nor can you take several variables together and predict the curriculum that will go

with them. You can, however, say girls in girls' schools are more likely to do 'hard' sciences than girls in mixed schools; or, boys in boys' schools – particularly of a certain type – are more likely to do modern languages than boys in mixed schools.

I am obviously not going to attempt a thumbnail sketch of the secondary curriculum. We have, however, to make our minds up about all this diversity. Some of the variation is inevitable, some expedient and most the result of choice. With falling rolls, the number of inevitable and expedient variations may be reduced (for example, accommodation), but some constraints may be intensified (for example, staffing). There is bound to be some rethinking. According to how we read current evidence and argue the case, future choices will be more divergent or more convergent. Whichever it is, we surely want it to be as a result of reasoned choice. So what has to be explored as a matter of urgency is where in the secondary curriculum convergence is a virtue and where divergence. May I say immediately that convergence which stifles the talents of pupil or teacher cannot be a virtue. . .

Variation and divergence do not particularly affect the first three years of the secondary curriculum. There are still traditional differences by sex in the aesthetic and practical subjects – though fewer than, say, ten years ago – and often limitation by ability to the taking of second languages, or even first foreign languages. The least able may well get a very large part of their curriculum devoted to the basic skills, though not necessarily taught in such a way that success allows the pupils to rejoin the general option pattern which normally prevails after 14.

You therefore have the strange situation that something which was intended to increase opportunities limits them significantly. This is an aspect of the problem of continuity that I mentioned right at the beginning. Something slightly similar crops up in respect of the more academic pupils. Here there is, undoubtedly, variation in the curriculum of the first three years according to the type of school attended. In the comprehensive school, these pupils are likely to have increased opportunities for technological, craft and aesthetic subjects: in the grammar school, more opportunity for starting a second modern or a classical language. The broader base of the comprehensive school should be an asset and should encourage more of the academic to turn to the technological and aesthetic subjects after 14 and even for their careers. But, this broader base without a second foreign language reduces the number of pupils likely to choose a second modern or a classical language when these are offered as options: so much so that in small schools, or even in large, demand may not be sufficient to justify classes at all. Consequently there is a reduction in opportunity that was never intended – and a reduction important not just to the pupils.

The real problems of variation in the curriculum come at the post-14 stage when diversity is to some extent inevitable. The curriculum is largely personally determined according to what the pupil is good at, what he wants to become or do when he leaves

school, or what he might succeed in passing an examination in – the whole dependent upon that which an individual school can offer. Only skilful guidance is likely to make this a valid basis for the curriculum. Most schools set out the curricular options in such a way that both what they see as the essentials of secondary education and its overall balance are under-pinned, but there are many hidden regulators. Despite the picture of great diversity that I have given, some fairly strong general trends emerge from – or despite? – the exercise of choice. For the more academic, the diet is still largely a selection of traditional subjects, with sharp competition for time between the sciences and languages or between both and the aesthetic/technological/humanities group. If you are an able scientist or linguist, you are quite likely not to be 'moralized' or 'humanized'. On the other hand, for the less able, and certainly for the least able, there is a strong chance of more 'personal development', i.e. careers guidance, health education, community service, and so on. Similarly, to compensate for fewer subjects over all and fewer opportunities to learn a foreign language, there are likely to be more integrated studies – social studies, humanities, European studies or the like – and more 'general' science or a life science rather than physics or chemistry. Almost certainly there will be more 'practical' subjects and more basic skills. The common ground for all pupils, in the sense of subjects which are compulsory, tends to be no more than religious education, physical education, mathematics and English. But you must remember that I am talking about the practice of the secondary curriculum and not its theory. Many schools would claim that the whole curriculum is common ground since they offer the full range of curriculum options to all or the majority of their pupils. In addition, the grouping of options makes for comparable patterns in which the essentials are always present in one form or another. But one can only judge a school's curriculum from an examination of the innumerable individual curricula followed by individual pupils. Of each one has to ask, taken as a whole over the pupil's school career, does it show 'balance'? Does it keep opportunities open? Does it make proper demands?

How do we judge the curriculum?

And so I turn to my second point, how HMI judges the curriculum. I shall concentrate on secondary schools . . . The starting point of HMI's assessment is always what the school itself aims to do for its pupils, how far it is succeeding, and what the constraints are, both upon its choices and on their execution. But a second analysis has to follow immediately, based on some assumption about the purposes of secondary education for all pupils, both in terms of the pupils' individual development . . . and those things deemed necessary for the country's well-being. Again, allowance has to be made for a school's circumstances, and the point of this second assessment may be as much to identify the needs of the system as a whole, in terms of teacher supply, in-service training or development of resources, as to

generate discussion or change in the schools inspected. We do not often apply the intermediate frame of reference, namely how a school curriculum contributes to the pattern of provision within an authority. With falling rolls, perhaps this intermediate exercise may be more necessary for you and us.

For the past five years or so, this combination of processes has perpetually thrown up the same two sets of questions. The more important set concerns the whole secondary curriculum; the second set refers to parts of it. To take the whole curriculum, can it be right that the experience of pupils in our secondary schools and even in the same school is so diverse? Should there be such a difference of shape between the curriculum for the academic and that for the less academic? Is there really no such thing as a secondary curriculum proper for all pupils? Can one claim that the present curriculum is built positively rather than negatively (and somewhat competitively) by the crowding out of this or that? Do all these individual curricula give and ask enough? Perhaps particularly for the most able, is the traditional curriculum sufficiently forward and outward looking? For all pupils, does it sufficiently foster the knowledge, skills and qualities of mind and feeling that would serve – and here one takes off into the rather grandiose world of educational aims – society, the country's interests, and our very small world?

In the short term, the second set of questions is probably the more urgent. This is the whole range of practical questions which bear not upon the curriculum of the individual pupil but upon the output of the system and its effective organization. Can it be right, for example, that the option system – together with lack of resources and motivation – should put modern languages across the country so at risk? Can we afford for girls not to choose scientific and technological options? What ought maths to be for the majority of pupils? Is it right that, even at A-level, maths comes in twenty-one varieties or so – and in many more at CSE and O-level, though that is a different matter? Ought pupils moving about the country to have a better chance of picking up their key studies without disruption in the same way they would pick up their football or their chess, their piano or their pop?

Much of HMI's routine work is concerned with the second set of questions. But we would still consider more important, in the medium and long term, the first set about the nature of secondary education and its need to match up, not only to the academic and employment demands made upon young people but also to the human ones. This line of thinking gives a much wider framework to the whole of the secondary curriculum than that in general use. We have had it very much in mind in the secondary survey where, alongside close examination of English, mathematics and science, all of which we consider essential to the secondary curriculum of all pupils, we have analysed carefully what schools do for what we have called the personal development of their pupils. You should have this report by mid-1979.

The same thinking is behind the work of the 11 to 16 curriculum group. A group of HMI led by a staff inspector, drawing on their

own experience of schools and calling into contribution the subject committees of the Inspectorate, have written a series of papers attempting to outline the elements and criteria which together might lead to a satisfactory and coherent secondary curriculum for all pupils. These papers are currently being tested and, we hope, turned into practical reality, in five local authorities, by the wish of those authorities and largely with volunteer schools. The papers are for publication shortly and in due course we shall add case studies based on the school experiments. The great advantage of the case studies is that they should demonstrate clearly to the very sensitive educational world the variety of real practice which can correspond to a more uniform framework.

You will realise that one of the problems in our current work on the curriculum arises from that professional independence of HMI, of which I spoke at the beginning. We have, to some extent, jumped the gun and perhaps started running the wrong race. Ours is perhaps a longer distance. We have been thinking about a very broad common core – almost but not quite a common curriculum – translatable into a whole range of forms to match pupils' needs; for us this links with the maintenance of opportunity, the provision of a broad and liberating education and the contribution education can make to the minds, senses and values of those who will be and will run the country tomorrow. . . .

Department of Communication
and European Studies,
Brighton Polytechnic,
Falmer, Brighton

Dear Sir,

While agreeing wholeheartedly with the general argument put forward in your 'Talking Points' (TRENDS, Summer 1977) that research into broadcasting needs to concentrate on the *effectiveness* of educational radio and television programmes, I feel you have been less than fair to the BBC for the efforts already made in this direction. There is certainly a need for an extension of cooperation between programme makers and researchers, but I have personal experience of several projects which have received full and enthusiastic support from BBC producers.

Within my own area of foreign language teaching, the Language Centre at Brighton Polytechnic has carried out detailed research investigations into the beginners German course 'Kontakte', the second year German course 'Wegweiser', the beginners series 'Get by in German' and 'Get by in Spanish'. Other less detailed, but nevertheless useful investigations have been carried out into some schools programmes and into the Russian 'Ochen priyatno'. At the moment there are two full-time and two part-time researchers involved in studying themes such as 'Why adults drop out of educational series' and 'The importance of teacher expectation in making effective use of schools broadcasts'. We have received full cooperation from the BBC and the results have been fed back into programme production, with, I believe, some useful results.

In addition to this work, there have been several other comprehensive investigations into a variety of subjects from ROSLA to Adult Literacy, not to mention the first class results which have been coming from the Open University media research teams.

There is certainly much room for improvement and I would welcome, for instance, a properly funded and carefully organized scheme for linking broadcasts more effectively and more integrally with research, but the considerable efforts already made should not go unnoticed.

Yours faithfully,

DR BRIAN HILL,
Head of the Language Centre

ATV Centre,
Birmingham

Dear Sir,

It was encouraging to find you discussing educational broadcasting in your editorial (TRENDS, Summer 1977). The real problem about assessing the effectiveness of schools TV programmes is that so much depends upon the teacher using them. Most programmes aim to stimulate rather than provide conveniently testable factual information. They are never intended to stand alone.

I am not quite clear about the relevance of your reference to the Emperor with no clothes. Her Majesty's Inspectors were, I am sure, dressed as is their wont when they visited schools to report in 1972 that an educational resource of great current and future potential was not being used to maximum advantage because of the practical difficulties met by schools in using TV. A similar conclusion was recorded in the 1974 report 'Using Broadcasts in Schools' by C. G. Hayter, former HM Divisional Inspector of Schools in the North Midlands: 'the value of broadcasts has been fully and progressively recognized by teachers . . . their potential contribution is most effectively realized when the skill of the teacher is purposefully committed to their use, and this is most likely to happen when conditions are right . . . using broadcasts well is no easy task'.

In other words, when teachers are asked about their use of schools TV – and this is a question that is frequently put to them – they are much more likely to complain about the practical problems of using programmes than about the quality of the programmes themselves. This does not mean that the programmes do not need criticism (perhaps TRENDS IN EDUCATION could make a contribution here), but it does suggest that as such extensive use is made of schools programmes, perhaps rather more attention needs to be devoted by someone (Mrs Shirley Williams? DES? HMIs? Local advisers? Heads? Schools of education? Any remaining colleges of education? TRENDS IN EDUCATION?) to the uses to which they are, or could be, put.

At present, school broadcasting is something of a gift horse. As well as looking at its teeth, should we not all spend more time telling people what it can do – and maybe offer a few riding lessons?

Yours faithfully,

PHILIP GROSSET,
Head of Educational Broadcasting,
ATV Network Limited

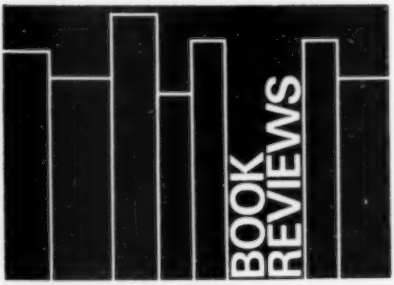
Department of Library and
Information Studies,
Loughborough University,
Leicestershire

Dear Sir,

As it is clear from my correspondence that some readers have misunderstood the intention of my article 'Library Resources and the Teacher-Librarian: A Guide for the Inexperienced' (TRENDS 1977/1), I would be grateful for the opportunity to put the record straight. I believe that, as soon as economic circumstances permit, there is an unanswerable case for appointing as school librarians only those people whose professional competence as librarians has been demonstrated by their admission to the register of chartered librarians maintained by the Library Association. In the interim, however, we should give to present incumbents such help and advice as we can – which is what my article set out to do.

Yours faithfully,

DR NORMAN W. BESWICK,
Course Tutor in Education and Library Studies



Evaluating educational television and radio

Tony Bates and John Robinson (Editors)

The Open University Press £17·50 hardback

For five days in April 1976, an international conference devoted to 'evaluating educational television and radio' was held at the Open University, Milton Keynes. It was the first of its kind and attracted over 200 participants from twenty-nine countries. Not surprisingly, the conference generated a great deal of printed paper – papers submitted in advance or brought to the conference by the delegates, the addresses of various key speakers, the summaries of the rapporteurs, together with points arising from the discussion sessions – almost half-a-million words in all.

The conference proceedings thus constituted a unique library of information and expertise which could not be left buried in archives or locked away in private cupboards. The editors have done a remarkable and outstanding job in processing this vast amount of information and in condensing and editing it into this readable and valuable source book about evaluation in educational broadcasting.

The book falls into two main sections, the one concerned with submitted papers, the other with material coming from the conference itself. In the first of these, occupying about three-quarters of the book, sub-sections deal with children's programmes and educational broadcasting to schools; with non-formal adult education; with university and college courses; and finally with what the editors term the 'context of evaluation' that is with what they term the political, organizational and professional contexts.

Most of the reports and papers have, of necessity, been severely edited. However they remain sufficiently detailed and informative for the general reader while the specialist can follow up any paper by direct contact with the author where necessary. The editors selected the papers not so much on grounds of high academic respectability as for the practical information they contained about what people are doing in this area, why they are doing it and what they hoped for or actually achieved from the work. This makes the majority of papers very readable with a down-to-earth realism which is both informative and stimulating.

M. EDMUNDSON

The psychology and education of gifted children

P. Vernon, G. Adamson and Dorothy Vernon

Methuen £5·95 hardback, £2·95 paperback

During recent years, the enormous and varied amount of American literature on gifted children has been augmented by a considerable number of publications in this country, many of them the result of recent research projects.

This new addition, as might be expected from its authors, is a distinguished contribution to this field. Within successive chapters dealing with definitions of giftedness, special talents, the nature of creativity, divergent thinking tests, the identification of gifted pupils, the home upbringing of gifted children, provision, segregation and enrichment, the reader is presented with a scholarly and comprehensive, yet highly readable, review of research in these areas, alongside the authors' own hardheaded conclusions and experienced assessment of the current state of the subject. Such thorny issues as labelling,

segregation, special schooling, acceleration and early transfer are candidly and unemotionally discussed from many viewpoints in a way that should prove helpful to all concerned with this problem. The chapters on identification and enrichment, particularly, contain much useful detail and many sensible, practicable suggestions for the classroom teacher.

The overall aim of the present book, we read, 'is to reduce ignorance and prejudice – ignorance about individual differences and the psychological characteristics of gifted children, and prejudice against organizing special instruction for them . . .' While they do not underestimate the magnitude of their task, the authors' efforts must be accounted noteworthy.

The book ends with an extensive bibliography and indexes of names and subjects. It merits serious attention and should appeal to a wide range of readers.

D. T. E. MARJORAM

On teaching classics

J. E. Sharwood Smith

Routledge and Kegan Paul £3·25 hardback

This is an excellent and well-written book. Heads and their staff responsible for curriculum or for English, history and humanities departments as well as classics teachers will find it stimulating, informative and useful. Its style, frequently antithetical, is always lively, witty, even at times impish. Though the author's basic convictions are clear, he subjects the claims of classics in general and its courses in particular to thorough analysis and trenchant criticism. He faces problems honestly and he is prepared to concede flaws and difficulties where they exist as to point up virtues and achievements. The reader is left without final answers. 'For a whole century classics teaching was living on dwindling capital and extended credit. In the 1960s, with the abolition of the Latin requirement at Oxford and Cambridge, with the expansion of the universities and the beginnings of comprehensivisation in the secondary schools, old-style classics went bankrupt. But the Greeks and Romans are still with us: on the television screen, in the theatre, in the colour supplements *and* (my italics) in the classroom. Now that they are treated with less reverence, they are more engaging, more interesting and more stimulating. New-style classics has not yet fully taken shape.'

Perhaps the chapter of most interest to classical and non-classical teachers alike is the one on 'Teaching classical civilization to the lower and middle forms of the secondary school'. Acknowledging that in comparison with the teaching of Latin, classical studies is 'still dangerously (if refreshingly) innocent in respect of its theory', Sharwood Smith rises to the challenge by clarifying the issues and disentangling theories from practice. His current experience both as a part-time teacher of humanities and Latin and as senior lecturer in classics at the London University Institute of Education, makes him well aware of the realities of the classroom, of what it is to work in a team of teachers and of the thinking in departments other than his own. He has much of value to say on imaginative and historical treatment and on the functions of myth and talk; and his comments, general and particular, about methods, reasonable expectations and planning for progression on the one hand, and about writing worksheets and taking pupils to museums on the other, are shrewd and practical.

His chapter on 'Teaching and classical languages' covers such matters as the history of classics in the curriculum, the direct method, Waldo Sweet's structural linguistics, pronunciation, scansion, prose composition and courses in Greek. His observations on the Cambridge Latin course are at once laudatory and critical. He admits something has gone wrong if it can be proved that pupils are unable to read unseen texts even of modest difficulty. As he puts it,

the theory of language acquisition on which the course is based may or may not be correct, or the construction of the course may or may not be faulty, or teachers have not yet discovered the best way of teaching it. 'Nevertheless . . . it has transformed our notions of what a Latin course should be and made obsolete all previous Latin courses; and its successes are far more remarkable than its failures.' It is a pity nevertheless that his perceptive analyses do not include an appraisal of other recently published courses, of, for example, 'Ecce Romani' and Harrison's Latin Reading Course; a balanced assessment would be assured.

Classics departments will also find useful his chapter on teaching in the sixth form. Here he concentrates on ancient history ('old-style' and 'new-style'), on classical civilisation and on the part classics can play in general studies: the omission of comment on Latin and Greek at A level is to a large extent remedied by the inclusion of another chapter on teaching the classical literatures.

The appendix, entitled 'Further reading' and consisting of an annotated and up-to-date bibliography for all the topics he examines, is particularly valuable, a spur to the continued hard work and hard thinking to which he rightly calls his readers. They will be grateful for the contribution he has made himself.

A. F. TURBERFIELD

Schools learning: mechanisms and processes

R. J. Riding

Personality and education

David Fontana

Open Books £4·95 hardback, £1·95 paperback (each)

These are two books in the *Psychology and Education* series, written by practising educationalists. The selection of topics covered by the series was based on a survey carried out by the editor, Gerald Curtis, in 1973 among polytechnic and college staff who were engaged in teaching psychology and education. The areas represented were those rated as the most essential in the courses for which they were responsible, and the authors have set out to provide an introduction to those psychological concepts, both recent and established, which will have key significance for the reader embarking on more detailed study. Riding has successfully maintained the relevance of his material to his chosen theme of school learning. He draws on a wide range of experimental studies without becoming tedious, and his chapters on the analysis of meaning, and cognitive styles are particularly welcome. The writing is clear and not oversimplified considering the scope of such a short book, and the topics are well sign-posted. References incorporated in the text are listed in detail at the end, and there is a subject index. An interesting feature of this book is the points for discussion at the end of each chapter.

Fontana's book shares most of these virtues. It provides neat introductions to the work of Freud, Eysenck, Rogers, Lewin, Erikson, Kelly and others, and has chapters relating personality to learning theory and cognitive behaviour. Some reference is made to personality and attitude testing. The other titles in this useful series are *The Social Context of Teaching*, *Learning and Behaviour Difficulties in School* and *Child Development*.

G. CRANMER

An experiment in nursery education

Martin Woodhead (Editor)

NFER £3·95 paperback

Martin Woodhead and the NFER are to be congratulated on the production of a well-edited, well-presented and readable, though tardy, account of the Foundation's Pre-School Project of

1968–73. The research itself was completed before the publication of Dr. B. Tizard's *Research Review*. It arose as an experiment in compensatory education through a programme of direct teaching in nursery schools to improve children's linguistic and perceptual skills. Both the method and the choice of the Peabody Kit as the basis for the special programme were controversial.

The broad results were that all the children exposed to the programme made significant gains but these appeared not to be related to social or educational disadvantage. A longitudinal follow-up in the infants' schools revealed that the established gains were not maintained and that there was even a hint that the programme might have had an adverse effect upon the development of mathematical ability.

There is a refreshing honesty in the editing which exposes the warts on the original research design and subsequent procedure. These include the failure to provide a balanced control group, a missed opportunity to apply the same test before and after transfer of school and the extraordinary indulgence of adding on a small-scale and also uncontrolled experiment in parental involvement in one of the nursery schools at which the main project was currently taking place.

While sociologists and politicians may debate the morality of restricting the benefits of a programme for the disadvantaged so as to reduce inequalities, educationists will ponder upon the finding that all children gained from the programme which must surely reflect upon current belief and practice in the methods and approach of traditional nursery education.

This book indicates a need for further research into the process of transition from nursery to infant education and for some more systematic investigation into the feasibility of increased parental involvement in nursery education. Both these needs had in fact been anticipated in the DES Nursery Education Research Programme (see TRENDS 1975/3).

J. L. KAY

Vandalism in schools

Judith Stone and Felicity Taylor

Save the Children Fund £1·00 paperback

This is a lively pamphlet which first describes the facts as far as the authors have been able to establish them, and then relates this background to the wider issues of human relationships and community involvement. The writers demonstrate that vandals may be from any social class, and of either sex, but are most likely to be between 5 and 16 years of age. The difficulties of defining vandalism and of estimating the cost are well illustrated by examples.

Passing somewhat lightly over the need for parents to exercise more discipline, the authors devote about sixteen pages to the learning environment and what schools can do to help. Some of the suggestions are somewhat naive in their disregard of the practicalities of school staffing in a time of financial restriction, for example:

> Schools argue that they cannot have pupils inside during the dinner break because of the risk of vandalism. Perhaps they have got it the wrong way round: far from increasing vandalism a comfortable sociable dinner hour indoors may reduce the aggressive anti-social feelings which are likely to make children turn to vandalism.

The theme running through the latter part of the pamphlet is the need for good relationships; style of teaching and relevance of the curriculum are important, but pupil participation in the running of schools is regarded as at the heart of any long-term solution. This clearly deserves careful consideration, but the impression is conveyed, at least to the reviewer, that developing the will to cooperate is regarded as less important than certain simple administrative actions to change the system. Indeed the case for the reform of schools is argued with such enthusiasm that in reading the pamphlet, one sometimes forgets that the subject is vandalism and that schools do not have a monopoly of it.

The authors are to be congratulated in bringing together a considerable amount of information within fifty-two pages; a much longer work would be

required to discuss the validity of the research to which they refer. The pamphlet deserves to be read widely.

CHRISTOPHER A. NORMAN

Learning and behaviour difficulties in school

D. J. Leach and E. C. Raybould

Open Books £4·50 hardback, £1·95 paperback

The authors are practising educational psychologists and this quiet, reasonable book concentrates on general behavioural and learning strategies and offers guidance on how problem pupils may be dealt with in ordinary schools. The authors believe that if teachers work with problem children in an experimental way, they may be able to develop teaching techniques and materials which would bring about desired changes. Taking the child's symptoms as the problem, the model of experimental intervention is the assessment of his learning environment and the requirements for change, which lead to planning a teaching programme and thence to reassessment.

This implies careful structuring of teaching, particularly when children begin to have difficulties. Teaching must aim to ensure that the child is less frustrated, exposed to fewer adverse consequences and not cut off from the rewards of the school, the teacher, the classroom and the tasks themselves.

It follows that the teacher of a problem child, while believing in the possibility and accepting the challenge of bringing about change in the child's learning and/or behaviour within the classroom, must be aware of, and be prepared to modify, his or her own attitudes and behaviour towards him.

Detailed guidance on the analysis of behaviour and on the planning of interventions is followed by a survey of more specialized procedures for assessing learning difficulties. The final sections are on helping strategies respectively in the classroom and in the school, with a short discussion of preventive action which may be indicated by the incidence of learning and behaviour problems in schools.

The strength of this book lies in the simplicity of its style, in the clarity of its suggestions for translating psychological theory into useful practice, and in the hope it gives of a successful outcome for many classroom problems. It will be useful not only to teachers who wish to reexamine their practice but also more generally for in-service training.

CHRISTOPHER A. NORMAN

Education and the education of teachers

R. S. Peters

Routledge and Kegan Paul £4·95 hardback

Any new publication from Professor Peters is a welcome event, and to find that the topics of the book are so closely allied to those of the Great Debate is to approach the book with anticipation. The nettles of questions like 'What is quality?' 'Who and how shall assess?' are grasped in the first half of the book. The latter half is devoted to an attempt at assessing the training of teachers and in particular the place of educational theory in the preparation of teachers. This section combines two papers delivered by the author at ATCDE*/DES conferences in the 1960s, and a third paper, written at the times of the James Report, defending the role of universities in teacher education.

In the first section, the inherent contradiction of words like 'quality' and of concepts like 'a liberal education' are well exposed and set out with Professor Peters' enviable clarity. He offers a framework of three criteria for the correct ascription of the title 'an educated man' which, however, beg some of the questions he himself has posed. The criteria are, 'commitment to intrinsic values', 'knowledge and understanding' and 'wholeness'. These, as he recognizes, leave unanswered the question of what is more valuable and more worthy of study. Furthermore, the

* Association of Teachers in Colleges and Departments of Education

commitment to intrinsic values is probably the very item upon which much criticism of the liberal tradition in education is based. Can an educational system successfully pursue 'relevance' and the needs of the economically productive world, while also holding intrinsic and non-instrumental values as supreme? Many of us believe that it must, but find the inherent contradiction of the tasks both philosophically and practically disturbing.

The second section rehearses the author's now widely accepted concept of the educational disciplines as multi-disciplinary tools with which to work upon the practical problems of the teaching task. With a refreshing side-swipe at the woolly use of the word 'curriculum' in much educational debate, Professor Peters pleads for the importance of subject content in a teacher's preparation. Education, he says, 'involves gradual initiation into rigorous and differentiated modes of thought and awareness'.

It is salutary to be reminded again of Professor Peters' clear and admirable vision of what the area of educational studies should be, in contrast to what he describes as the 'undifferentiated mush' which all too often it can be found to be. There will indeed be many who cheer to find from so eminent a source a plea for the highest and sharpest of academic criteria to be applied to the education of teachers.

PAULINE PERRY

Pupils in profile

Scottish Council for Research into Higher Education

Hodder and Stoughton £2·50 paperback

This book is a stimulating account of a study by a working party set up by the Headmasters' Association of Scotland (the Headteachers' Association of Scotland since 1974) and representatives of schools, industry, further education and educational research.

The proposals which are the subject of this study are set against an expressed dissatisfaction with the information that many students take with them when they leave school at 16-plus; particularly if they have no public examination results to show. In any case for many, the number of examination subjects taken is restricted and this working party suggests that there should be a cumulative profile of each student which includes not only a record of his achievement in a full range of subjects, but also some statements about his attitudes to work, to himself and to other people.

If, as they claim, the working party's suggestions about pupil profiles have been generally accepted by teachers, parents, employers and colleges, then this work deserves very careful examination. If the result is a more helpful summary of the outcomes of eleven years of compulsory schooling for each individual, then this book will represent a significant document in the current discussion about education and the placing of students in suitable employment or training.

C. H. SELBY

The social context of teaching

Gerald Cortis

Open Books £4·50 hardback, £1·95 paperback

Much of the best educational scholarship in this country is still exercised in the collation and interpretation of existing research, rather than in large-scale original research. Gerald Cortis's excellent book attempts the enormous task of reviewing all available evidence about the interactions involved in teaching and learning, and he produces from this review some interesting and important conclusions.

Starting from the premise that 'people make people . . . by shaping one another's behaviour', and that this is true of teachers in a unique and special way, the author examines concepts of leadership, communication, punishment and control, group norms and values, and the vexed question of 'climate' within a school.

Several useful ideas are explored, particularly in relation to the concepts

of leadership and climate, which are linked in that 'it is the organizational or environmental quality of the school that will largely determine how far the teacher develops, or fails to develop particular leadership qualities'.

While the charismatic 'born teacher' mythology is less acceptable today than in the past, nevertheless the author concludes that successful teacher style will be to a large extent of the visible and dominant kind, because the teacher/pupil relationship must inevitably carry in it elements of hostility and confrontation. He concludes also that the legal force behind the teacher's task 'is a much deeper element affecting behaviour than many social science and educational texts have, as yet, apparently and visibly recognized'.

Against this rather unpalatable conclusion, however, is set an interesting account of research on the influence of teacher attitudes on their teaching style, and the influence which these in turn have on pupils' learning. For example, the pupils of teachers who score high on the 'abstract' value scale have a statistically significant level of higher involvement with classroom activities 'and showed higher levels of achievement'.

At the end of this interesting book, one feels that, perhaps, we may be slowly arriving at a definition of what is meant by a 'good' teacher.

PAULINE PERRY

Introducing sociology

Peter Worsley (Editor)

Penguin £1·50

A dictionary of the social sciences

Hugo F. Reading

Routledge and Kegan Paul £3·50, £1·50 paperback

Pros & cons

Michael D. Jacobson

Routledge and Kegan Paul £3·95, £1·95 paperback

The second edition of *Introducing Sociology* has now appeared. The first was published seven years ago and quickly established itself as one of the best of the 'introducing sociology' books available. Though it retains the same basic structure as the first, the new edition has been considerably updated. The section on Marx's theory of class, for example, outlines very succinctly the differences between the social 'determinism' of the Euro-Communists and the 'voluntarism' of Guevara and Debray. But the main changes and additions have been made to take account of such matters as the rise of the women's movement, changing attitudes to the family, developments in the theory and practice of education, the growth of urbanization (particularly in the Third World), and new contributions to the theory of development. A section on race and ethnicity has also been added to the chapter on social stratification. But perhaps the most useful chapter for anyone still stumbling through the minefield that sociologists like Parsons and Garfinkel have laid for us all is the concluding one. It explains their theories far better than they have ever managed to do for themselves.

At one time I had a dictionary of gardening that included the entry 'Centipede: see Millipede'. There was no entry for Millipede. I have discovered nothing quite as inspired in Hugo Reading's dictionary—indeed, much of it will be very useful, particularly to students—but many readers will find its usefulness greatly diminished because of the way in which most of the entries are defined in terms of other entries. An example will give you the flavour of what I mean. One of the three definitions given of the word 'clan' is: 'a *consanguineal kin group* based on *unilineal descent* but with descent untraced'. (The italicized phrases are supposed to be defined elsewhere in the dictionary.) There is no entry for 'consanguineal kin group', but there is one for 'consanguinity' (three definitions), 'kin' ('persons related by *real*, *putative* or *fictive consanguinity*') and *group* (seven definitions). 'Descent, unilineal' is defined as 'allocation at birth to one or more *groups* of relatives, the

relatives in each group being related in a single line'. So now you know what a clan is.

The first edition of *Pros & Cons* was published in 1896. The current edition is the sixteenth. It takes the form of opposing arguments over such diverse subjects as the public control and taxation of advertising to the need for a written constitution. On the way it takes in a number of topics of interest to educationists, including co-education, comprehensive schools, corporal punishment, examinations, public schools, teaching machines, and the reform of universities. The arguments are laid out in columns side by side. I often found, disconcertingly, that arguments in favour of a particular viewpoint were countered by others that seemed just as convincing. A useful book for debaters, certainly, but readers prone to what an American political commentator once called 'ambivalence over the issues' perhaps ought to learn by heart the arguments they instinctively favour and then lock the book away.

IAIN PATERSON

Reviews in brief

The first number of the *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, incorporating *Education for Teaching*, has now appeared. Its policy is 'to provide a forum for the reflection and critique of current educational change in all sectors of further and higher education and all areas of educational activity . . . with which our readers are concerned and in which they work, whether as teachers or as students'.

The journal is published by the National Association of Teachers in Further and Higher Education, and its price to non-members is £4·00 per volume of three issues, post free (surface mail).

Is history becoming a social science?

Alan Bullock

Cambridge £0·60

This is the text of Lord Bullock's Leslie Stephen Lecture 1976. Answering his own question, he quotes with approval Robert Fogel, the co-author (with Stanley Engerman) of that well-known cliometric study *Time on the Cross:*

> We have come to recognize that history is, and very likely will remain, primarily a humanistic discipline. We now believe that the issue raised by historical quantifiers is not whether history can be transformed into social science but the usefulness of social science methods in a humanistic discipline . . . Useful as social science may be in providing certain of the elements that must be included in a historical synthesis, the synthesis itself lies beyond the range of social science . . . I do not believe that quantification requires the abandonment of the synthesis as the ultimate achievement of historiography. Nor do I believe that quantification requires the abandonment of history as a literary art.

Publications of the Standing Conference for Local History

The Local Historian, the quarterly journal of the Standing Conference for Local History, is well known to most practitioners of the subject. What is less generally known is that the Standing Conference also publishes a range of booklets on particular topics, many of which should interest those teachers who include a study of local history in the syllabus.

Hedges and Local History (£0·75) outlines a method of dating hedges so simple that, with guidance, even quite young children can make a genuine contribution to the study of the history of a locality. *Tape Recording of Local Dialect* (7p plus 3p postage) also gives a practical guide, this time to the recording of local speech. This is another area of investigation to which many history classes can contribute.

The subjects covered by the other booklets, such as *How to Read a Coat of Arms* (£0·50), *Writing a Church Guide* (£0·75), *Building Stones of England and Wales* (£1·00), and *Local History and Folklore* (£0·85), are less likely to appeal to children as directly or to be as easily understood as the first two. However, teachers and pupils working in collaboration can contribute a great deal to our knowledge of the local history in this country. All these booklets can help local historians, even those of long experience, and *Local History Exhibitions: How to plan and present them* (£0·12) gives good practical guidance on one effective way of making their findings known.

Publications of the Standing Conference can be obtained from the National Council of Social Service, 26 Bedford Square, London WC1B 3HU.

Additional books received

ANGELL, GEORGE W., EDMUND P. KELLEY, JR, and ASSOCIATES. Handbook of faculty bargaining. *Jossey-Bass £15·00.*

BROWN, GEOFFREY. Child development. *Open Books £4·50 (£1·95 paperback).*

BURBY, RAYMOND J., III, and THOMAS G. DONNELLY. Schools in new communities. *Ballinger £10·00.*

BURGESS, TYRRELL. Education after school. *Penguin £0·80.*

CALLAHAN, JOSEPH F., and LEONARD H. CLARK. Innovations and issues in education. *Collier Macmillan £4·50.*

CALLAHAN, JOSEPH F., and LEONARD H. CLARK. Teaching in the elementary school. *Collier Macmillan £5·25.*

CLAYDON, L. F. The urban school. *Pitman £5·95.*

COUNCIL FOR EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY. Computer-assisted learning in higher education – the next ten years. Technical Report No 14. *Council for Educational Technology £0·75.*

COUNCIL FOR EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY. Educational computing in the local authority sector – the next ten years. Technical Report No 15. *Council for Educational Technology £0·75.*

DERRICK, JUNE. The child's acquisition of language. *NFER £1·75.*

DERRICK, JUNE. Language needs of minority group children. *NFER £2·10.*

DILLNER, MARTHA, and JOANNE P. OLSON. Personalizing reading instruction in middle, junior, and senior high schools. *Collier Macmillan £6·75.*

ELLWOOD, CAROLINE. Adult learning today: a new role for the universities? *Sage £7·00 (£3·50 paperback).*

GEGA, PETER C. Science in elementary education. Third edition. *Collier Macmillan £15·50 (£9·00 paperback).*

GREENWOOD, W. N., and H. W. MARRATT. New objective tests in religious studies. *Hodder & Stoughton £1·50.*

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